

Childhood Education

**TODAY'S CHALLENGE
IN EDUCATION**

September 1946

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Childhood Education

The Magazine
for Teachers
of Children

*To Stimulate Thinking
Rather Than
Advocate Fixed Practice*

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Next Month—

"Finding Out About Children" is the theme for next month's issue. The contributors discuss various ways of finding out about children and reveal some of their findings.

Lois Murphy describes the effects of certain cultural factors on the development of children. Katherine D'Evelyn describes formal and informal ways of finding out about children.

"Behavior as an Index of Children's Needs" is the title of the article by Katherine Roberts. Home life and its effects upon children are discussed by Evelyn Luchs, while Lillian Gray presents the case for zoot-suit youth.

Lorraine Benner presents a bibliography of books which give new slants on today's children.

Reviews and news will bring readers up to date on books, research abstracts, bulletins and pamphlets.



Horace Mann-Lincoln School
Teachers College, Columbia University

... these shall see
America as the Pilgrims once beheld it;
A free land wide as dreams, a fair land lying
With the white morning look of hope upon it.

—From "The Rediscovery of America"
By FRANCES MINTURN HOWARD
In *Common Ground*, Summer 1946

SEPT

The Challenge We Face

LITTLE MORE THAN A YEAR AGO SHRIEKING SIRENS AND CLANGING BELLS provided a brief emotional release from the strains of war. Shooting ceased and peace was ushered in. Since that short interlude of rejoicing, the problems of readjustment to a world without combat have loomed as large as those of war itself. Seldom in history has man been so blocked in his progress toward human brotherhood and better living.

Heartbreaking as war is, it now appears we know how to wage it. We can produce and transport goods of marvelous quality; we know the strategy of warfare on land, sea, and air; we know how to coordinate and direct our forces toward mastery of all obstacles set by our enemies. Now, helplessly, pathetically, we flounder in our efforts at winning the peace.

At the beginning we were not ready for war. We floundered; our tensions mounted; we found our course; sheer determination drove us on, through, over, and under the handicaps to success. Perhaps after a period of floundering we shall learn how to solve our problems of peace as we did those of war, but the solutions will not be accomplished by wishful thinking.

The formula for winning the war is not an easy one to apply in overcoming the barriers to peace. In war the threat of danger brought us together in one common purpose. In the defense of nations, family, friends, and way of life lay the great motivating force for disseminating common understandings. It caused us to surrender certain individual rights and personal power for the common welfare.

We have been thoughtful about these things during the first year of peace as we have seen destructive forces unleashed—forces which seemed held in check only by threat of a tangible enemy. We have been concerned as we have observed greed, selfishness, prejudice, and sheer stupidity cloud the face of truth. And it has seemed that a new awakening to the treacheries involved in present day problems of living would reveal a threat to the welfare of mankind which is less tangible but quite as real and sordid as actual military combat.

Here is the challenge to education: to analyze the problems of life we are facing; to foster truth and promote widespread understanding of how to solve life's problems; to engender in all people the selfless determination that problems shall be resolved for the welfare of all mankind. The processes needed for peace are the very processes of education.

THIS CHALLENGE HAS DOMINATED the plans for CHILDHOOD EDUCATION for the year now beginning.—WINIFRED E. BAIN.

About This Issue

EVERY INSTITUTION OR INDIVIDUAL EXISTING OR LIVING IN THE WORLD TODAY is meeting problems which there is no precedent for solving, is facing situations that demand immediate action, is subject to pressures which structure and organism are unprepared to control.

And so it is with education. Winifred Bain in her editorial, "The Challenge We Face," likens the processes needed for peace with the processes of education. She names three points of action as constituting the challenge to education.

In our approach to a way of living, we have two choices as pointed out by William Kilpatrick in "The Education We Need: The New Versus the Old." We can tell children what to think and make them do what society wishes them to do. Or, we can help children to live what is fit to be learned and to live this so understandingly and so fully that it will be learned intelligently and abidingly. A democratic society demands the second approach and Mr. Kilpatrick tells us how to make it. The responsibility of the teacher is to set the limits within which the child is permitted to live and learn by experience how to manage.

What these limits are is discussed by Mary Willcockson in "Hilltops for Children." She would take children as far as they could climb through a school program in harmony with the principles of child development and with the needs of present day society.

How teachers feel about themselves determines to a large extent how they feel about the children they teach and how they respond to children's behavior, says Betsy Williams in "Why Teachers Teach As They Do." Here, then, is another challenge—to help teachers in their pre-service and in-service education to understand themselves as persons so that they in turn may better understand children and seek to improve the human relationships involved.

Two problems of administration that present challenges to education are presented by Gertrude Hildreth in "Age Standards for First Grade Entrance" and by Lili Peller in "Nursery School Readiness." The challenge lies in our ability to adapt and willingness to change administrative procedures to what we know is best for children.

YES, EDUCATION TODAY HAS ITS PROBLEMS and its pressures which reflect the state of the world and of man as he struggles to find a way of living peacefully with himself and his neighbors. They cannot be solved or controlled by sudden or prolonged revolution. They can be faced realistically and solved cooperatively by determined people who know what they want.—F. M.

By WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK

The Education We Need: The New Versus The Old

The challenge in education today is to know what living is best for children—living that is fit to be built into mind and character. Through comparison of old and new conceptions of learning and teaching, Mr. Kilpatrick shows why the new is increasingly replacing the old. This article is adapted from Chapter V of Mr. Kilpatrick's new book, "The Learning Process," which is soon to be published.

THE MODERN CONCEPTION OF LEARNING differs so essentially from that formerly held that many parents have difficulty in understanding it. A comparison of the differences between old and new may show why the modern outlook is increasingly displacing the older view.

The Older Conception of Learning and Teaching

The most of those who read this article were themselves brought up on ideas of learning and teaching very different from those herein presented. On the older conception learning was primarily a receiving affair. It started with something chosen by the teacher or parent for the child to learn, learn at a given time and as an assigned task. It was counted that the child's mind was, as regards this thing-to-be-learned, simply vacant, empty of it, a *tabula rasa* (clean slate) on which the act of learning was to write the new. This was especially the way book learning was understood.

Matters of conduct, however, were likely to be different. In this it was generally believed that we dealt not with a *tabula rasa*. Rather could the child's natural depravity be counted on to make him oppose any moral ad-

vance. Children were, it was thought, built that way.¹

It is quite true that this older view of learning has for a long time been losing ground, especially below the high school. But it is even now far from dead. Just let people generally get stirred up over youthful shortcomings and these older ideas are sure to come forward. The popular background notion is that the surest and most dependable way of building mind and character is to *tell* the young what they are to learn and *make* them learn it. And such making seems even yet to most people to depend, as it did in the past, on drill and punishment.

When these older notions were going strongest, some three hundred years ago, teachers did not think it necessary for the young to understand what they learned; understanding, they thought, could come later. Thus before Comenius (d. 1670) boys began the study of Latin in a grammar itself written in Latin. This they learned by heart — rote memory if ever there was an instance of it—not

¹ The book learning side of this old school began at Alexandria some three centuries B.C., when the Ptolemies planned to make Alexandria the intellectual capital of their known world.

understanding at first a single word. As late as 1845, Bullion's *English Grammar* said, "Memorize first, then understand."

Even within the memory of many now living, children were taught reading by a method which began with a complete absence of understanding. This was the "alphabet method" in which the child first learned the names of the twenty-six letters, learned to call the names of the letters as they were pointed to by the teacher. And next he learned the sounds of certain syllables as he called the letters: a-b ab, e-b eb, o-b ob, u-b ub; b-a ba, b-e be, b-i bi, b-o bo, b-y by.

Following the learning of sounds came months of the spelling of single words, first "in the book," then "out of the book." At length the child came to a primer of short sentences, itself not too meaningful. And even after this long and—to the child—unmeaningful process, he was compelled in order to read with facility to *unlearn* his laboriously acquired habit of spelling the word to himself before he pronounced it. And, astonishing as it may seem, we actually hear today some old-timers lament the passing of this old alphabet method on the unproved belief that because of the new methods the young do not spell as well now as they did in the good old days. As we think of those old days we can readily understand why a hopeful author named his primer, *Reading Without Tears*.

When so much of school work was thus in its detail a meaningless affair to children, we can hardly be surprised that the teacher of that day had such frequent recourse to the rod. Every very old picture of a schoolroom includes a goodly bunch of

switches for the master to use. Oliver Goldsmith (d. 1774) said explicitly:

Whatever pains a master may take to make learning agreeable to his pupil, he may depend it will at first be extremely unpleasant—and I know of no passion capable of conquering a child's natural laziness but fear.

Now we know that no child is lazy—disinclined to activity—unless he is weakened through illness or has through mistreatment become maladjusted. The school can be, and should be, the happiest of places. It was this older kind of school that Shakespeare had in mind when he spoke of the "the whining school boy . . . creeping like snail unwillingly to school." Only within the current decade are the newspapers ceasing the inevitable stereotype that the opening of school means general regret to children.

It was toward the close of the old vogue that the president of Oglethorpe College in Georgia resigned (in 1840) because the trustees would not allow him to whip college students above the sophomore year. About the same time Horace Mann noted in his annual report that in the year 1837 some one hundred fifty schools in Massachusetts were closed because the pupils ran the masters off, and that in 1844 a typical public school of Boston enrolled four hundred pupils and whipped an average of sixty-five of these each day.

Teaching has been getting better ever since Pestalozzi (1746-1827) showed in Europe, and Horace Mann (1796-1859) in this country, that pupils' failures to understand, on the one hand, and the resulting whipping, on the other, were alike the outcome of bad ways of teaching. The spirit of democratic humanity and a better psychological insight have collaborated

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to bring an ever-improving practice. Thorndike's statement (1928) represents the better current view:

The silent, motionless, memorizing elementary school which was in vogue until about a generation ago repressed and thwarted and deformed mental growth.

The New Teaching —A Preliminary View

Teaching is of course the effort to help learning go on. Thoughtful teachers have always so understood it. The wide differences that history has to show come from different conceptions as to how learning takes place and as to how best to help it go on. It may perhaps help our thinking to note a certain similarity between teaching and learning respectively, on the one hand, and selling and buying on the other. The salesman has not sold until the customer has bought; the teacher has not taught until the child or youth has in fact learned.

How then shall we teach? The answer must come from a knowledge of how learning goes on. Our best present insight is what thoughtful parents have always known, namely, that *we learn what we live*. In general, then, the problem of how to teach is shifted to the problem of how to help others live. Our children and youth will learn what they live. The result is as inevitable as the law of gravitation. Our problem thus becomes how to help them live what is fit to be learned, and how to live this so understandingly and so fully that it will be learned intelligently and abidingly.

This shift in thinking from the old assignment-drill-memorizing way to the new emphasis on living is so great a shift that many minds brought up on

the old simply can't make it. Thus do we see and hear the many critics rise up to condemn the new. They call it play and speak of lollipops; they say we are softening and spoiling children. They pretend, in apparent ignorance of the well-established facts to the contrary, that children do not learn by the new methods and that teachers who attempt it therein cease to work, becoming instead mere idle onlookers while children sport about.

As soon, however, as we ask seriously how to get children to live finely, how to live the kind of lives fit and proper to be built into character, the task of teaching becomes far more complex, but far more interesting. Philosophy, science, and art are all involved, each in its human social setting. The effort is as serious and as delicate as any that life affords. When we ask as to the kind of character at which to aim, our deepest philosophy is called into play. When we ask what steps to take as means, both science and art are involved—science to tell us how to act, art to give us the skill. For the teacher works with the finest and most infinitely plastic of all art material—human potentiality. How to follow the vision, what precise steps to take with all the infinite variety of children, no one can claim to know with final certainty, but some things seem fairly clear.

First, we must start where the child now is—with his present outlook and insight; with his present interests, knowledge, and skill. He is already a going concern, each child with his own individual ways of behaving. He is not only a going concern, but he is very insistent on going. This fact the older "silent motionless school" found to its sorrow. These older type school peo-

ple, as we saw above with Goldsmith, spoke of the child's "natural laziness." They didn't know how to start where he was. They insisted on starting where he was not. Their effort was self-contradictory; it could not work; they could not keep the child silent and motionless; he neither lives nor learns that way.

Second, we must understand that growth takes place best by getting the child's present equipment to work. To secure this, the child must work at aims and purposes he himself feels, at which he will work if given a chance. For this we must know how a better structure of interests, ideas, and correlative procedures can grow out of the use of the best he now has. We start where he now is—the best he now has that we can get going—and then try so to guide this feasible best that it shall lead (as we shall later consider) to a better stock of interests and ideas and methods.

Third, we must—if we believe in ethics and democracy—seek to upbuild ever more adequate self direction in each child. There are dangers here as in all delicate matters but we must help as best we can each child to learn to think and act increasingly on his own. This does not mean that parents and teachers are to abdicate. On the contrary, we must retain control. A two-year-old wishes to climb into a chair. He may fall. Our question should be, will it damage him to fall or only pain him? If only pain and not damage, let him climb; he will learn from both successes and failures. But if he wishes to climb in and out of this second-story window, no; to fall

from there would damage him. We cannot allow it.

So always do we, his elders, set the limits within which the child is permitted to live and learn by experience how to manage. As fast as he learns to manage within these limits, we broaden the limits. Ultimately he must take over his own decisions. Meanwhile, we may if need be order and forbid as emergency measures; otherwise, he may damage himself or others. But in all this we must know that he is learning badly if on the whole he fails to learn ever better to act ever better on his own thinking.

It is with such things as these in mind that we must set to work at helping our children to live—to live ever more fully and finely. Living is an active affair and it is their living that does in fact educate them. The test of our success will be the amount and quality of living that continues when we are not present—in the afternoons, at week ends, and during vacation. If the good living that we help to create does not take root to grow more and better living it was, educationally, not good living to begin with. As teachers we had insofar failed.

For all who would manage children there is this fundamental lesson:

Our children will learn what they live and they build this at once into character. The primary work of teacher and parent is then to help children live well, to help them to live the kind of life fit to be built into mind and character.

Here is the challenge in education today.

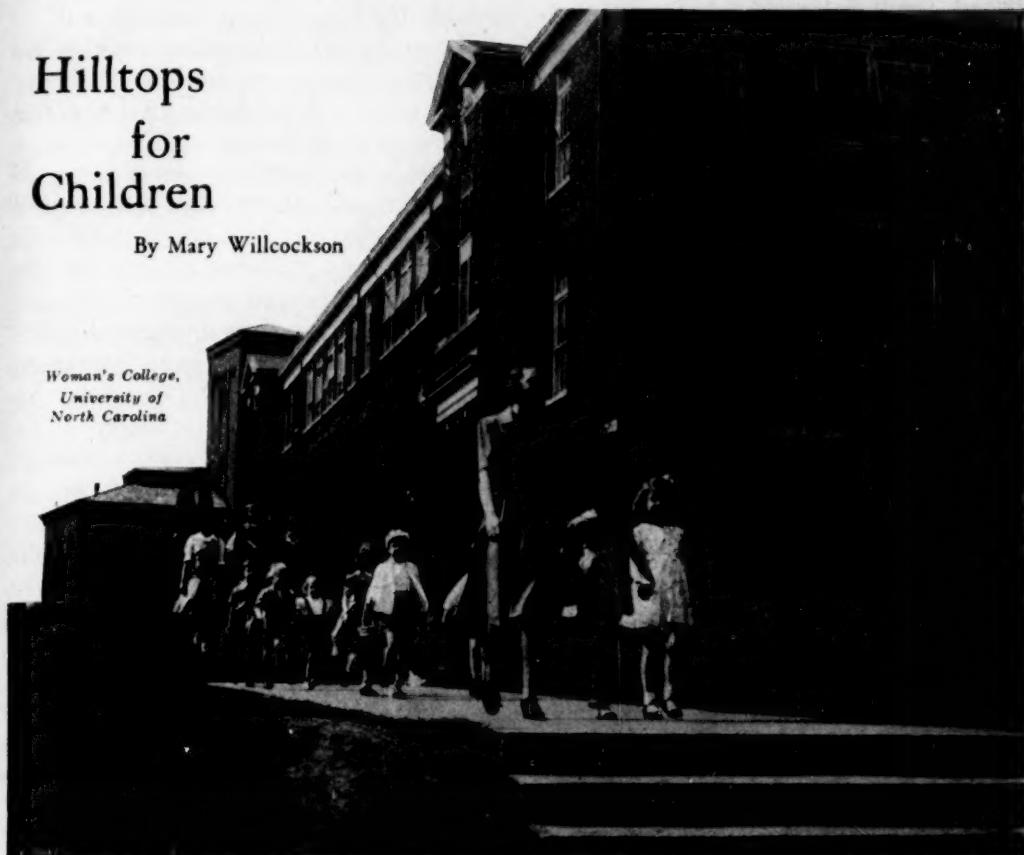
WE NEED A NEW PROFESSION OR VOCATION, the object of which shall be to wake up the intellect in those spheres where it is now buried in habitual slumber.

—WILLIAM E. CHANNING.

Hilltops for Children

By Mary Willcockson

Woman's College,
University of
North Carolina



"Hilltops are realistic elevations of land that teachers and children climb together to view the world, to widen their horizons or to make life more significant." To judge progress in reaching higher elevations Miss Willcockson of Miami University gives two criteria: the relationship of learning to living and the growth of the children.

As I WAS HAVING BREAKFAST with a friend the other morning, I asked him what he thought of this title, "Hilltops for Children." Before he could answer, some grapefruit juice shot into his eye. His reply was, "I have a feeling that the title is like my grapefruit. There is more to it than meets the eye. Are hilltops places where teachers take children on excursions?"

I hastened to explain that hilltops are realistic elevations of land that teachers and children climb together to view the world, to widen their hori-

zons, or to make life more significant. If it is impossible to climb real hilltops, teachers resort to *incursions*. They bring hilltop resources into the classrooms.

He interrupted with, "Oh, you are one of those modern teachers who does not believe in burying her nose in the textbooks. You are like the far-sighted Spanish painter, Velasquez, who made his paint brushes eight feet long to improve his vision."

Although my friend was not a teacher, he had caught a vision of a

broad, well-balanced, dynamic program of social living in the classroom.

The recent curriculum handbook, *A Good Start in School*, says: "It is the obligation of the schools through their curriculum program to raise all children to the highest possible level of thinking, feeling and acting, and to prevent the development of those traits which are detrimental to the welfare of democracy. Opportunity for each child to become the best, noblest, finest person he can become is the very essence of democracy."¹

What Relation Has Learning to Living?

This idealistic philosophy of the hilltops can become practical only when we develop in our classrooms a program of experiences in harmony with the principles of child development and with the needs of present day society. Hilltop teaching does not result from the increased mastery of the three R techniques but from the addition of the fourth R—relationships of learning to living. This means the relationship of the individual and the subject matter, of people to each other, and of the school to the ideal of democracy.

I should like to double that fourth R and let it represent racial relationships. Many people might think of it merely as relationships of the three R's to each other or as the relationship of the three R's to their own race. All relationships between people of different races, ages and creeds must be stressed. Children not only have contact with racial hatred through adults, but also inherit expressions in our language that they use. Such expressions are "Indian giver," "Nigger in the woodpile," and "Jew him down." Although children may not sense the meaning of these expressions, the effect on the listeners

might develop more intense hatreds.

To understand the whole child in his present environment will be the only solution to real guidance of boys and girls at any age level.

How convenient it would be if teachers could quarter this whole child and then quarter the days of the school year. During the first quarter of the year, we could teach the physical quarter of the boy; during the second quarter of the year, his intellectual quarter, and during the last two quarters, his social and emotional quarters. It sounds like quartering a beef, except that we haven't any beef and we do have the boy. I can hear my breakfast friend saying, "Why do you think that the quarter system is convenient? So far, many schools care only for the intellectual quarter and you are introducing three other quarters."

I have faith in teachers. I believe that they want to grow and that they are growing in hilltop guidance of children. Ralph Tyler of the University of Chicago says that studies made in the last ten years show that in a good elementary school today, by the end of the sixth grade, children are able to read, write, spell and compute as efficiently as were the eighth grade children of the early 1920's.²

I believe that the elementary schools have improved because teachers are becoming more and more dissatisfied with the narrow program of the three R's, even when patched up with assembly programs, school newspapers, and the occasional incursion of people and things brought in from the resources

¹ Published by the Department of Public Instruction, State of Indiana. Indianapolis, Indiana: the Department. Bulletin No. 158.

²From "Earlier to College." *Progressive Education*, May 1945, page 33.

of the community. They are recognizing the inadequacy of prescribing the kind of behavior for children that makes them good memorizers but poor thinkers. They are tired of distributing rewards for conduct that conforms and penalties for conduct that deviates. The root of the evil is isolated teaching of the three R's without the fourth R—relationships of learning to living.

Many teachers have begun to climb to the hilltops with their children. The war efforts pushed them out into the community with the collection of scrap materials, with the selling of war stamps, with paper drives, with rationing. They caught a vision of the community-centered school and did not return to their earlier conceptions of subject-centered learning or of child-centered learning.

But many teachers have returned to the cloistered four walls of the schoolroom and continue their disrupted teaching of the cherished heirlooms—the three R's. They are afraid to continue the kinds of social participation that the war effort forced upon them. They are afraid of such unfavorable conditions as too little equipment and too many children, too many frowns from parents and too many knotholes in the board of education.

I believe that boards of education, administrators, parents and teachers want the best for the children but that lack of common understanding causes disagreements. I ask myself constantly, "What am I doing to break down the barriers of these interested groups? Am I widening my concept of teaching to include community resources? Am I bringing into the classroom resources of people and things? Am I taking my children out into the community for social participation?

Many teachers feel that it is too late for them to organize their activities in terms of a community-centered school. They know how to do a formal kind of teaching and cannot get up the steam of desire to try anything else. It is never too late and the deepest satisfactions result. Moses at the age of eighty led the children of Israel into the promised land. He only took a step at a time, walking slowly and firmly onward with his eyes on his hilltop. Gray walked for thirteen years before he reached his illumined horizon, *The Elegy*.

I learned about my illumined horizon from a baby turtle, not from Moses or Gray. One day a sixth grade boy appeared at my door. He had a baby turtle that he wanted to show to the first grade children because his brother was in the room. An avalanche of questions struck him. The first one was, "Where did you get it?" He told them that he had caught the turtle on the seashore last summer when it was hurrying out to sea. The children wanted to know why it was hurrying. Was it wanting to swim because it heard the waves, or did it see the water? The boy told them that he had asked the same questions and that he found the correct answer in his mother's church paper, *The American Friend*. The paper said that the turtle could not see or hear, but was drawn toward the light. He had not believed it until he had tried out an experiment at home. He had placed the turtle in his backyard, far from the sea, under bushels of sand. He had placed a flashlight at the top of the sand. Soon the baby turtle had struggled blindly upward and found the light.

Unlike the turtle, I do not struggle blindly toward my illumined horizon. I have learned a method of being two-

faced. I teach children to be two-faced. I teach them to look behind at the last step and then to look forward at the next one. Evaluation means less slipping on the rocks, less waste of time, and less trial and error.

Are the Children Growing?

Although a modern teacher does not believe in the quarter system of carving the child, yet she must evaluate her activities constantly to see if the physical, social, intellectual and emotional factors of growth are fostered. Let us consider each of these factors.

We know that our schools today are reading schools, in the main. In the first grade children sit for hours turning the pages of reading workbooks and writing numbers from one to a hundred. Back in the nineteenth century Kingsley poked fun at us for our lack of physical development. In his story, *The Water Babies*, Tom was astonished at the weasly, watery, immobile babies fastened in the mud. His adventurous imagination could not conceive that momentarily these poor babies became more weasled, watery and immobile as the schoolmaster approached with his stick. They could not remember their three R's.

One sixth grade teacher did something about this need for physical development. An overaged boy, Bill, called out, "Teacher, I'll about bust if I have to set still much longer. Kin I go outside?" The teacher stopped her drill on the table of fives and had the children stand. To the monotonous direction calling, less colorful than that of the radio hog-calling contests, she said, "Arms up, arms down; bend knees, unbend." Then Bill was sent out to get a drink.

In a primary grade the teacher recognized this need for physical development by the flushed cheeks of the seat-work group that had been inactive for an hour and a half while she had worked with three other sections. She had them place the cherished seatwork in their desks, then they stood. To the colorful tune, *Over the River and Through the Woods*, the children marched to the front of the room, climbed over one chair for the river and two chairs for the woods.

Both of these teachers deserve praise. They saw a need and did something about it. They took their first step up the hillside. Today they have widened visions of the school of tomorrow. They see acres and acres of land with hills to climb and brooks to wade. There is a big field for games of skill, not games to rest the tired bodies from too much seatwork. There are gardens to make and cows to milk. Today the teacher of the older children has planned with them to take a trip to the woods for walnuts. They need the walnuts to experiment with primitive dyeing. The walnut meats will be used for cookies that the children will make for the Thanksgiving party for their mothers. The primary teacher has rabbits and guinea pigs to share the honors of living with children who care for them.

Both of these teachers have a strong health program. One feature is the purchasing, preparing and serving of the mid-day lunch. Health knowledge is gained from documentary materials, from movies, from talks by the county nurse, from excursions to the health clinics of the town, from surveys of health conditions in the community and from health participation during health checkup activities in the build-

ing. They help the doctors with the care of the younger children. In the lower grades, sex education is cared for through experiences with animals and in the upper grades through direct teaching.

Let us consider the intellectual side of the development of the child. We need the highest type of intelligence today as we have never needed it before. The only way to obtain it is by living intelligently day by day in the classrooms. Large units of experience give purpose to the necessary three R's. I remember the words of Harry Emerson Fosdick: "What is more wonderful than a child taking charge of his own mind?"

The world of tomorrow rests upon the kind of social participation that tomorrow's citizens, today's children, develop. We frankly admit that our greatest problem in the world today is that of wise group planning and action based upon it. If children sit in seats during the school day, memorizing the pages of texts without thinking critically about the content, what chances are there for the world tomorrow? Group planning of classroom activities is necessary today if cooperative action is demanded by life outside of the school.³

In order to nurture emotional development of children, group and individual interest must be met. Inventories of interests can be made by the children themselves, and parents can

be asked to discover what resources are available to carry on these interests.

Teachers should capitalize on their own interests. What are your hobbies? How can you share them with children? As you walk up the hillside with your children you may kick a rock. Do you see in it the history of the ages, a chance for an interest in geology? Or do you see the skuff on the toe of your shoe, and think in practical terms of the cost of a new pair of shoes?

In conclusion, hilltops for children demand that the activities of the day be identical with the normal living experiences of children outside of school, and that the three R's become the needed and indispensable tools for carrying on investigations, gathering information, recording progress and communicating ideas. When the three R's really function for the enrichment of the meanings of life through large units of purposeful activities, the whole child climbs to the hilltops. The radiant reality of yesterday and the challenge of tomorrow come through the guidance of children into the larger four-R world. How large is your world? It is as large as you make it. There is much more to hilltops for children than meets the eye.

³ One of the most helpful, practical guides for social participation is the book, *Group Planning In Education*, the 1945 Yearbook of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Washington 6, D. C.

ALL THIS—THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS—means devoting a great deal of personal attention to the apprentice. It cannot be counted in terms of hours in the schedule of the teacher nor of credits for the pupil. In other words, the most important things are not such "business" at all but something quieter and closer to the spirit of man. For we cannot really "train" teachers of the right sort any more than we can make philosophers. The best we can do is to achieve such personal life in community of persons who are united in the love of truth and wisdom and who inspire in each other a greater love of learning.—From *Philosophy in American Education* (Harper, page 278)

By BETSY A. WILLIAMS

Why Teachers Teach as They Do

How teachers feel about themselves determines to a large extent how they feel about the children they teach and how they respond to children's behavior. Miss Williams, formerly a teacher in the Kaiser Nursery Schools, Portland, Oregon, describes the techniques used by five teachers and tells why each teacher responded differently to each child.

WITHIN RECENT YEARS philosophies of education have undergone change and more change. Now, in good schools, the ideas basic for good teaching seem to be: "more independent learning and less didactic teaching; greater opportunity for aesthetic expression; more emphasis on functional, relational aspects of experience; less authoritative child-adult relationships; greater readiness to accept children's emotional needs and their childish expression; less pressure to make children conform to adult mores; more understanding acceptance of variability and inconsistency in behavior; greater awareness of the experimental spirit in the field of education."¹

The success of these ideas is much more dependent upon the teacher than are the traditional practices in educating children. Yet, in teacher education, relatively little attention has been given to the kind of person the teacher is. She, too, learns what she lives. Teacher education, then, should help the teacher to understand herself as a person, to interpret her learnings to meet her own needs as well as those of the children she teaches. No amount of study or intellectualizing will tell her. She must learn to analyze her own feelings to the extent that her ability to adapt herself to the needs of the children is, in turn, fulfilling her

own needs as a person. It is not an intellectual problem, but an emotional one.

A teacher often finds that there is a conflict between the techniques and philosophies she accepts intellectually and her emotional identification with them when she tries to put them into practice. In former years a nursery school teacher's first impression of a child was often derived from a family history, interviews and records. Therefore, her approach to the child was often colored by a preconceived intellectual concept. With the coming of child care centers during the war little history of the children was known. Teachers had to respond directly to the children themselves instead of to intellectual data about them.

Why Teachers Teach As They Do

How does each teacher react to specific situations? How has each person interpreted her education to meet her own needs? How and why does each teacher have to teach the specific way she does, no matter what her education? As illustration, the reactions and responses of five teachers in three group situations, typical of almost any nursery school, will be described.

Jane was a young, quiet, eager assistant teacher who had been educated

¹ From a statement prepared by the Cooperative School for Teachers, New York City.

in a conservative but respected college. Her first teaching experience of a few months had not been satisfying and she was afraid this one would not be either. She knew she was not doing with children what she really wanted to be doing, but she was following the rules she had learned. Immediately, she was caught in the conflict of repudiating her own feelings which she assumed must be wrong since they did not correlate with what she had been taught to do.

On her first day at the Kaiser Center she asked, "Is it all right to hold a two-year-old if I want to? Don't they need to be held sometimes?" She had been taught that such a procedure would spoil children. Acting upon the affirmative answer to her question was Jane's first step toward being able to inject herself into her teaching. It was her first step toward really enjoying teaching and getting satisfaction from it. Gradually she was able to be herself and to feel free to express her own feelings about a child's aggression when it was directed against her. Ultimately, she became "free" with children and became a good teacher.

Evelyn had had superior training and looked forward to her new job with great eagerness and some trepidation. In spite of her wide experience the idea of large groups and long hours frightened her. She did not feel sure of herself with the age group with which she started nor with her fellow workers who were secure enough to emphasize her own insecurities. The crying children disturbed her considerably and she was able to be a "mother" to them—so much the "mother" that the crying did not stop. She did not feel able to "control" a group for

stories; she did not feel safe about putting a group to rest. Again, she would have no "control." "Control" to her symbolized her need to feel that children were going to do what she expected and wanted them to do. They could have complete freedom within that range; she was not tyrannical in her feeling or need. Intellectually she knew a great deal about what to do for her group, but her need to protect and "control," which had a logical enough explanation to those who knew Evelyn well as a person, could be seen time and again in her group of crying children.

Gertrude was a confident disciple of her unusually clinical training. She felt so secure in her teaching techniques and philosophy that other teachers admired and feared her. She was able to inject her own rather different attitudes and ideas into almost any group, although she was admirably subtle in her techniques with adults. She knew herself as a person and as a teacher. She was more consistent in her techniques than any teacher I have ever known. She believed in her training completely, understood its basic ideas, and accepted them. She hoped other people would but being a completely acceptant person they could disagree with her, even though she would never back down on a theory of her own. Her groups were what one would expect them to be—twenty children, all individuals, all working out their own problems constantly, with a person who could accept them as they were. They were never a group.

Alice was a well-trained teacher with experience much more suited to handling large groups than that of most of

the teachers at the Center. She felt secure in handling large groups at almost any time. However, having worked in several types of situations, she felt a real need to adopt a concrete philosophy—at least basically concrete. Just what it would be she was not sure. She was able to accept children's feelings, except those of the few children she did not "like." She readily admitted her dislike for these children. However, she did not realize for quite a period how essential it was to know herself as a person before she could accept any basic philosophy. The variety of techniques she used showed very definitely that she did not recognize her own needs and had not adapted her teaching to them or herself to them. Periodically she was satisfied with her teaching, but periodically she also felt great frustration from it. She felt that she was doing an incomplete job (as she was) because she neglected to recognize the all important needs and personality of Alice herself.

Mary was a conservatively educated person who knew little about children's feelings. She expressed few emotions and never let anyone know when she did have those. She was constantly confused by discussions of how a two-year-old feels about toileting and why he might "have to have" a temper tantrum. She believed as she lived herself that children should fit into the group—their society; should conform to all laws of that society. For example, if it was time to get washed for lunch, a child must get washed for lunch. Her approach was more assuming than dominating. She had a quiet efficient technique with the children, could handle large groups, and felt confident with them. The children always knew

what to expect from her, but always knew they could not "get out of line" with her. She had little understanding of her self or of her own feelings and probably never would have. Therefore, she had little understanding of the children but instinctively "managed" them well.

How and Why These Teachers Responded

With these five teachers, several in one group at a time, considerable observation could be made of how and why they used a wide variety of techniques with children. Five different teachers had to teach five different ways. How and why these teachers responded differently to specific situations with three children will be described. These illustrations will attempt to show the influence of personality differences.

I

Two-year-old Winston was commonly known throughout the Center as a "heller." He was a very handsome child—husky and strong—appealed to few people and was thoroughly disliked by many. He did not conform to any regulations without battle. He was a pathetic child because of his tremendous need to react negatively to so many situations but his family background gave considerable and ample cause for such response. He could be sweet and gentle but such a state was not frequent or typical.

Winston is building with blocks as are several other children nearby. Each has his own building. Winston has a magnificent structure for a two-year-old. For no apparent reason he knocks down Jim's and Julia's buildings. What to do with Winston? What to do with Jim and Julia?

Jane would not do what she had learned in school nor by this time would she feel guilty in not doing so. She would go directly to Winston, kneel by him, tell him she was sorry he had had to do that but that she could not let him do such things. She would help him to build a new building. At the same time she would give the other children sympathy and would help them, too. She was doing what she really felt—she was sorry it had happened, much more sorry for Winston than for Jim and Julia because she, too, had had difficulty and conflict in trying to conform to rules taught her.

Evelyn would go to Winston, getting there before he knocked both buildings down, remove him from the scene and give him something else to work with immediately. She would quickly turn to Jim and help him to rebuild his building, giving him utmost sympathy and protection from any other aggressor. She would watch Winston carefully, never quite trusting him and feeling very afraid of what he might try next. She could not "control" his actions; she never knew what to expect of him next, and he would not permit her to be more of a mother to him. One at home was enough. Evelyn was afraid of Winston and therefore gave all of her protective feeling to Jim on whom she could rely.

Gertrude would let Winston knock down the three buildings, then go to him and say, "I know how you feel, Winston. You do feel mean today, don't you? But I can't let you knock down other children's buildings." She would then sympathize with the other children, turn away and let the building progress to the point where again Winston knocked down three buildings. Eventually she would take him

to another activity where he could work out his apparent aggression. Gertrude had complete acceptance of Winston's need to work out feelings; she had been taught it, often did it herself, and honestly believed in it—not just because that was what she had been taught but because she could identify herself with her clinical philosophy.

Alice would go to Winston and tell him she was sorry it had had to happen, understanding that Winston needed to do that. Then she would either help him rebuild his own building and let him kick it down or she would remove him and hold him affectionately for a while. She could accept his feelings and did not want him to feel guilty for having them. She could identify with him much more than with Julia or Jim, although she would sympathize with them and help them. She instinctively liked Winston for having such feelings and for being able to do something about them. She had never been able to, really and honestly.

Mary would go to Winston and say to him, "We don't break other people's buildings," then perhaps send him to read a book. She would help the victims of the assault, telling them not to cry. "It didn't really hurt" and "I will help you." To Mary there was no reason why they should feel upset; they weren't physically hurt. "Winston just has to learn he can't do as he always wants to." She had had to long ago.

II

Katrina was a quiet, sullen child who responded to nothing. She was potentially beautiful but her sullenness kept it from showing even in her face for a long time. She did not eat, did not play and wore a snowsuit all day long in school. Literally she was "dumped"

every morning by her mother and "snatched" every night—always in tears. No adult or child could seem to help or reach her for a long time. She was a sad, unhappy, withdrawn child.

Katrina, with her snowsuit still on, has wet her pants as so often happens, and refuses to change without great protest. What to do?

Jane would take Katrina off quietly by herself, urge her to remove the pants and promise to put on the snowsuit when it was dry. She would probably accomplish the job, with weeping from Katrina, and would feel a little guilty for making Katrina conform even though it had been for Katrina's own comfort.

Evelyn would hold Katrina, letting her cry for a long time, then remove the pants and try to distract Katrina into some other activity. Evelyn would feel upset because Katrina was disturbed and she had not been able to do much about her disturbance. Again, she did not "control" the situation.

Gertrude would go to Katrina, saying, "You really don't want to take these off, do you? But I have to take them off because they are wet and you may get cold. I am sorry." Gertrude would then accept Katrina's feelings herself, letting Katrina realize she accepted them. Gertrude had to have the balance for her own satisfaction and also because it was an accepted part of her technique.

Alice would take Katrina from the group, hold her, sympathize with her and urge her to take off her pants. Finally, Alice would take off the wet underpants, put on dry ones and put back the wet snowsuit which was an important symbol to Katrina. By using this technique Alice would be

compromising, still not sure of which road to follow but satisfied because Katrina was not as unhappy as she would have been had the suit been left off.

Mary would keep Katrina in the group, would tell her she had to take her pants off because they were wet and uncomfortable. Katrina would weep and Mary would try to make Katrina stop crying because "it is all over now." Mary felt that Katrina had wet them herself, really should know enough not to, and it was therefore silly to make such a fuss. Again, Mary was conforming to the demands of society.

III

Zelia cried from the first moment of school—she cried at lunch, she cried at rest, she cried when she was held, she cried when she was not held. She was a tiny blonde—thin of face and body—calling for mommy and calling all teachers mommy. She was inactive with materials but was occasionally induced to hold a doll which sometimes comforted her. She was a scared, tense child for a long time.

Zelia came to the lunch table under great protest and refused food. Another "what to do?"

Jane would seat her near her and try to feed her, would urge her a little and ask her what she wanted. After no success, Jane would let Zelia get up and do whatever she wanted within reason. Soon Jane would give Zelia a sandwich, overcoming some of her guilt at trying to make Zelia conform. She felt strongly that if Zelia could do what she wanted now, eventually she would be able to meet the demands of society more easily and with less conflict than Jane had had.

Evelyn would hold Zelia on her lap

all through the meal and try to feed her. She would sympathize constantly, responding as a tender, distressed mother would, making Zelia cry even more. Evelyn would feel guilty because Zelia had not eaten and would be elated if Zelia tried a swallow of milk. Evelyn needed to feel that she had done something for the child.

Gertrude would accept completely Zelia's need to refuse food and would probably not do more than urge her to come to the table. She would feel it was more important for Zelia to be given a chance to refuse something basic like food than to be deprived of nourishment.

Alice would tell Zelia it was lunch-time, ask her if she wanted to eat, and assume that if she did she would come to the table. She would see what Zelia decided she wanted to do and then take some food to her and sympathize. Alice was not making Zelia conform, was not letting her be really hungry, and was identifying with Zelia to the extent that she could understand that Zelia might have a conflict. Alice would not be sure which was more important to Zelia—to say "no" or to have food. Again, Alice felt that way about many things herself.

Mary would put Zelia near her at the table, would try to feed her, would tell her to stop crying so that she could eat, and would try to make her eat without using actual force. Mary

would then feel that Zelia was a "spoiled" child because she did not do as the adult and the group expected her to do. She would resent Zelia's refusal considerably and not identify with it at all.

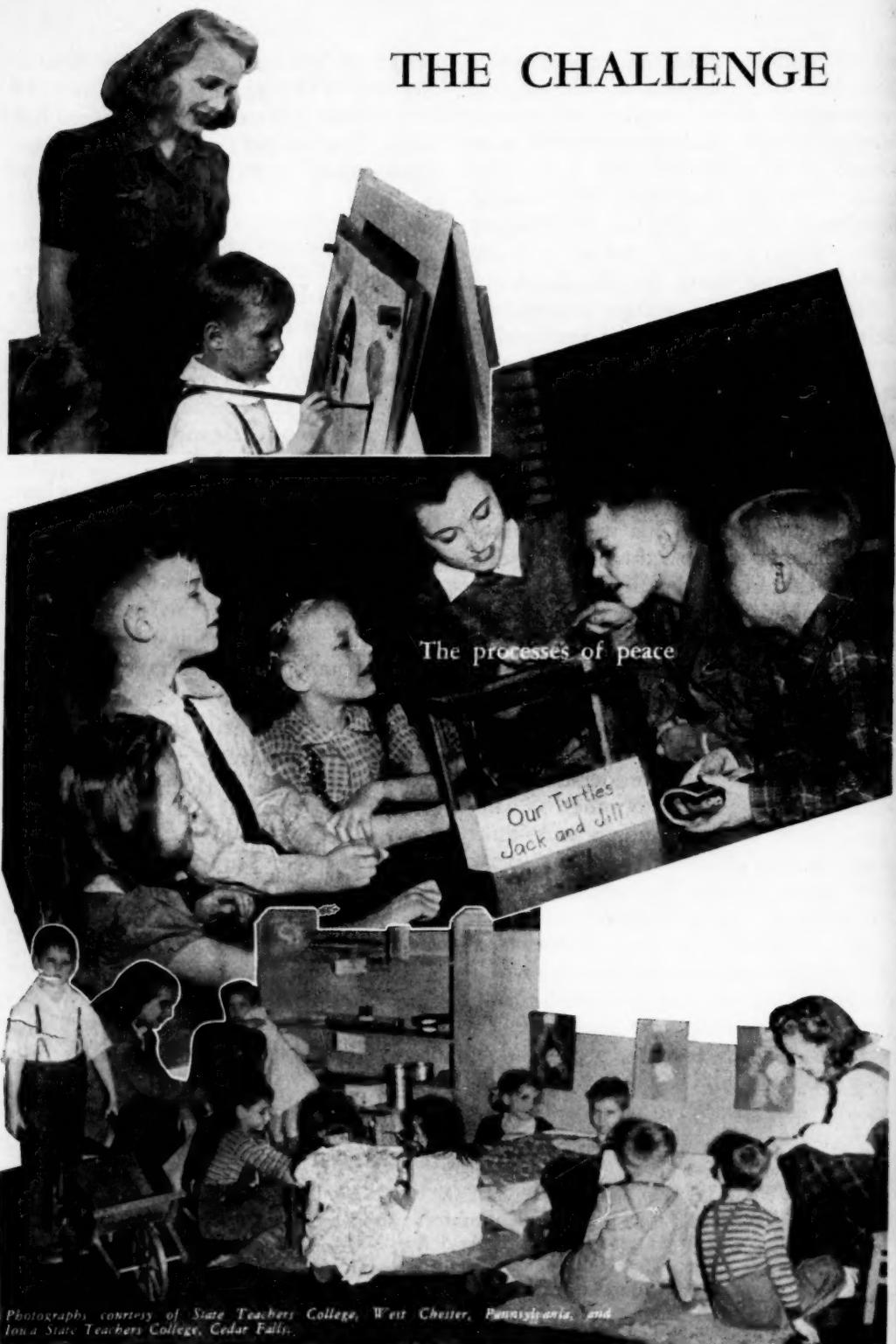
These illustrations show how completely differently each teacher responded to each child and why. No matter what she has learned a teacher interprets her learning to meet her own needs. As with Gertrude, it is much healthier for the teacher as a person if she is able to understand how and why she is doing as she does.

If we are to have schools where teachers are educated to understand intellectually that they should have "greater readiness to accept children's emotional needs and their childish expressions," these schools must in turn help a teacher to understand herself as a person. She cannot completely accept children until she understands herself and her own needs. She may not necessarily have them all met—few people do—but in order to meet the needs of the children, the teacher must be able to identify with the children and to recognize what she is doing to them and what they are doing to her. When that point is reached, an adult in any teaching situation will honestly and really accept children's behavior and will be able to do well by her group.

1947 Annual Meeting

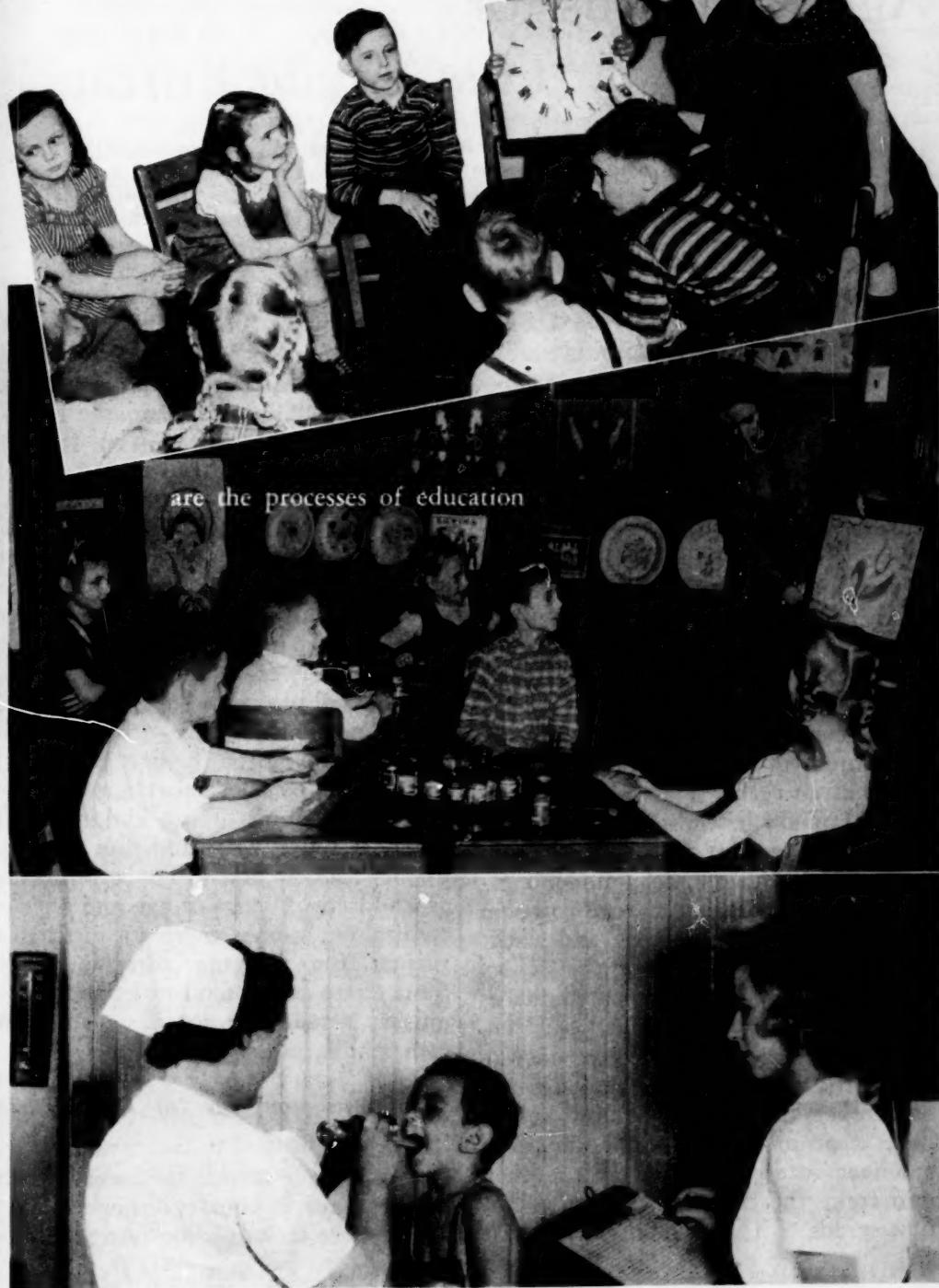
THE ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION invites both members and non-members to attend a study conference to be held April 7-11, 1946, at Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. For details watch future issues of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION.

THE CHALLENGE



Photographs courtesy of State Teachers College, West Chester, Pennsylvania, and Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls.

OF TEACHING



Age Standards for First Grade Entrance

When should children enter first grade? What kinds of programs should be planned for them? The answers to these two questions constitute the most challenging issues in early childhood education today. Standards to fit each individual child cannot be set up but Miss Hildreth, consulting psychologist, New York City, reports some present practices and emphasizes the need for further research.

A QUESTION THAT PUZZLES SCHOOL PEOPLE all over the country, judging from frequent inquiries and considerable discussion of the problem is, What should be the minimum age for entering the first grade, ordinarily the first compulsory school year? In other words, what age limit should be set below which the school is not obliged to accept a child for the first grade?

The superintendent of one school system reports that children must be six by October first to enter the first grade in September. There is considerable pressure from parents in this community to have their children start school at an earlier age with the deadline at January first instead of October. The superintendent feels that this will work a hardship on the younger children who seem too immature to begin systematic work in reading and arithmetic. He believes that the school system can maintain higher standards by keeping out the younger children.

Another superintendent would like to set the minimum entering age for September at six years because he believes that most of the children need a longer readiness period before they undertake the customary work of the first grade. This would mean that

some children would be kept out of first grade until they are six years and eleven months if they happen to have been born in October, and most parents of mature children who are this old would object to the delay.

In the majority of public schools, the minimum entering age is set somewhere between five years and eight months and six years, with most of the schools making some concession for those children who will attain their sixth birthday from one to five months after school begins in September. The commonest practice in urban schools is to accept children for first grade who will be six by December first of the year they enter. These children will be at least five years and nine months by September first. The attendance of children six years of age and over is compulsory, unless there are justifiable reasons for delaying admission. In some states and communities this compulsory attendance age is set at seven rather than six years.

What Minimum Age for First Grade Entrance?

Few schools outside the larger urban centers have a January entering class, so it is necessary to bring into school in

September all the children who will constitute the class for the year, except for a few children who will enter from out of town during the year. Schools in large urban centers can provide for two entrance periods a year—one in September and one at the end of January or first of February, whichever date divides the year most evenly.¹

The disadvantages of mid-year entrance and promotions are the extra clerical work required, the lack of continuity in the year's work, and difficulties in articulation at high school entrance.

Six years is the age at which the typical young child is considered to be ready for broader experiences than his home background provides; the age at which he can work and play with a group of children about his age under the guidance of adults other than his parents, and show some self-direction. Most parents of normal children are eager to have them begin school at six.

The problem in setting a minimum age standard for first grade entrance arises chiefly from two factors: first, the eagerness of many parents to enter their children in the first grade ahead of schedule, and second, the fact that candidates for the first grade have an age range of at least one year.

Parents of mature children below the minimum age who have attended nursery school and kindergarten feel that the child will be wasting his time unless he advances to first grade. They are eager to have the children under school supervision all day. In other instances, the more immature the youngsters the more the parents urge that the children be put in first grade, assuming that this experience will help the child overcome his immaturity. Usually it works the other way.

So far as the second factor is concerned, it is an awkward fact, and one that brings a host of problems in its train, that these six-year-olds were not all born in September, the month when school in North America ordinarily "takes up." Instead, approximately one-twelfth of the juvenile population celebrates its birthday each month. No child should be disadvantaged at school because of the particular month in which he was born.

The only fair arrangement would be to permit the children to enter at any time during the year's school session that they attain their sixth birthday or the age of five years and nine months if that age is set as a minimum. In some exceptional cases this is actually the policy, especially in private schools admitting children at other times than the beginning of the year. But this policy is impractical for public schools because the burden of teaching new routines to each child individually, to say nothing of the three R's and kindred learnings, would be too great for the teacher. Furthermore, these children, except in unusual cases, would not be ready to go ahead to the next grade at the end of the year because of the shorter time for preparation.

¹ In the New York City schools this year, the former practice of admitting first graders twice a year—in September and in February—is being discontinued as are mid-year promotions. Instead, all the children who are to be in first grade during the year will enter in September. The required age for admission is six by March first of the following year. This means that some children who will be just five years and six months of age will be admitted to first grade in September. Younger children will be placed in kindergarten. Individual differences in maturity among the first graders who will range a year in age are to be taken care of through readiness programs, maturity grouping and individual work. There will be less distinction between kindergarten and first grade work for the younger children.

For a substantial number of children—a number which is increasing every year—nursery school or kindergarten rather than first grade is the child's first year in school. A pupil may have attended a private or government-supported nursery school from the age of three followed by a year in a public kindergarten before he attains the age of six.

The problem is to determine the limiting minimum age standard for first grade that will exclude children who are too young to progress satisfactorily. Are there any scientific studies that bear on this problem that can be quoted in support of the standards that should be adopted?

The only research findings that have much bearing on the problem are those that tend to show that in the conventional first grade, children tend to fail unless they have a mental age of about six years and four months at the time of entrance. Only the brighter children and those who are nearing six and a half by the opening of school in September make good progress with the traditional first grade program. Slower learners and those who are much younger and no more than normally bright have a difficult time.

Every month of age makes a difference in the mental maturity and learning capacity of these young children. One month makes more difference in these early growth years than it does later. At age five, for example, one month represents one-sixtieth of the child's total maturity to date; at age eight, one ninety-sixth; at age ten, one one-hundred-twentieth, and so on.

Most local studies are of little help in establishing policies for other schools because an individual child's success is relative to the abilities and ages of the particular group he is in. For example, in a slow group a slow child will get along better than he will in a group that is more mature.

The school superintendent is faced with something of a dilemma: Should the minimum age level be set high to keep out the younger, more immature children? Or, should the minimum entrance age be set fairly low and a different kind of first grade program be set up which makes suitable provision for individual differences?

Some Possible Alternatives

The following table shows the varying age ranges and median chronological ages for typical school entrants, de-

Ages as of September First for Each Birth Month												
Plan	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sep.
I.	6-6	6-5	6-4	6-3	6-2	6-1	6-0	5-11	5-10	5-9	5-8	5-7
II.	6-7	6-6	6-5	6-4	6-3	6-2	6-1	6-0	5-11	5-10	5-9	5-8
III.	6-8	6-7	6-6	6-5	6-4	6-3	6-2	6-1	6-0	5-11	5-10	5-9
IV.	6-9	6-8	6-7	6-6	6-5	6-4	6-3	6-2	6-1	6-0	5-11	5-10
V.	6-10	6-9	6-8	6-7	6-6	6-5	6-4	6-3	6-2	6-1	6-0	5-11
VI.	6-11	6-10	6-9	6-8	6-7	6-6	6-5	6-4	6-3	6-2	6-1	6-0
Plan	Minimum	Median	Maximum				Range	Minimum	Birth Date			
I.	5-7	6-0.5	6-6				5-7 to 6-6	6-0	by Feb. 1st			
II.	5-8	6-1.5	6-7				5-8 to 6-7	6-0	by Jan. 1st			
III.	5-9	6-2.5	6-8				5-9 to 6-8	6-0	by Dec. 1st			
IV.	5-10	6-3.5	6-9				5-10 to 6-9	6-0	by Nov. 1st			
V.	5-11	6-4.5	6-10				5-11 to 6-10	6-0	by Oct. 1st			
VI.	6-0	6-5.5	6-11				6-0 to 6-11	6-0	by Sept. 1st			

pending upon the minimum entering age. Since the birthdates tend to be scattered evenly over the months in any year, the median age will always be about halfway between the oldest and youngest child when the age range is one year.

Of these several alternatives, the third—setting a minimum entering age of five years nine months with a median of 6-2.5 and a maximum of 6-8—seems to be the most reasonable for schools with no midyear entering class. If 6-0 is the minimum age (Case VI), then the median is 6-6, but the older children above the median will be too mature for first grade and parents of the mature children in this group will insist that they should enter earlier. If 5-6 is set as the minimum age there will be too many who should be in kindergarten.

Actually, the age range will always be wider than one year because of late entrance of some pupils for emergency reasons and because there will usually be some repeaters. The instructional problem will be complicated by the fact that the children range still more widely in *mental* age, and that they will vary in countless other traits that affect their success in learning.

Young children who are slow learners should certainly not be in a regular first grade, nor should young bright children who are glib with the "abc's" and "counting to ten" but are poor adjustment risks in terms of social and emotional behavior.

If the kindergarten entrance age is set low, this offers a problem for the first grade, for if a four-year-old can enter kindergarten he is presumably ready as a five-year-old for the first grade the following year. It would be a rare child under five years and six

months who could show sufficient readiness for first grade in terms of all around development. Ordinarily it is foolish to rush children along into the primary grades so fast.

Schools which have adopted January or February first as the minimum for children entering in September (Case II) place the younger and more immature children in kindergarten extension or junior primary groups until they have demonstrated their readiness to progress to the first grade. Such grouping is more possible in a large city than in smaller towns and villages where there are relatively few entering children each year.

Provisions for Exceptional Cases

A number of cities which set an age limit of six years by December first as the minimum age for first grade entrance admit a few children below this age limit who prove on individual intelligence or "readiness" tests to have sufficient ability to work successfully with the first grade without danger of failing. In one large city, with a minimum entering age of five years and nine months, children between the ages of five years and five years and eight months can enter the first grade provided they attain an I. Q. of 120 or over on the Binet Test. This I. Q. corresponds to a mental age of six for a five-year-old child.

Other readiness and group intelligence tests can be used for the same purpose in conjunction with other supplementary data to pick out those who give promise of adjusting satisfactorily in first grade. The testing should include or be supplemented by observations of the child's maturity in language, his physical coordination, mental alertness, vision, hearing, and

absence of serious defects that would impede progress.

Some Further Considerations

Deciding upon the minimum age for first grade entrance is only part of the problem. Another question to consider is, What kind of program should be carried on during this first school year? The median entering age of the children, as well as the range and the maximum and minimum age limits, will make some difference in what can be expected and what should be attempted by the children.

To most parents and laymen, entering first grade in the traditional school has meant that children will have direct systematic instruction in reading and other tool subjects throughout the year. In recent years this pattern has been changing, with the shift to various types of readiness and activity programs that are more in harmony with child development goals at this age. Furthermore, there is a growing tendency in primary education to call this first compulsory school year something other than "first grade." Junior primary, sub-primary, kindergarten extension, and vestibule classes are some of the new terms in use.

A safeguard in case of doubt and uncertainty due to lack of sufficient information about the children is to withhold book work and drill with abstract symbols for a time and to conduct a program resembling kindergarten activities until the teacher can become well acquainted with the children. One scheme is to classify all entrants for first grade as kindergartners for the first few weeks until teachers have time to become acquainted with the children and tests of doubtful cases can be made.

Some schools have set up in place of the first grade, or preceding the first grade, pre-primary, extension, or transition classes in which a non-academic activity program is carried on which is intermediate between the kindergarten and the more traditional first grade. Younger children who would otherwise fail in first grade can succeed with this more informal program.

In communities where there is an influx of young children with rather poor home training, this is the best scheme to avoid wholesale failure in first grade. If there are three levels of such classes, then the children can be promoted from one level to the next each term without encountering the formidable requirements of a conventional first grade program. This means that some children would spend a year and a half from the age of six before they have much regular drill work with symbols. This period gives the teacher time to train children in good habits, to help them develop linguistic skills, and to gain a background of meaningful experience before they try to read or have much formal number work.

Another trend is to have no sharp grade demarcations in the first three years of compulsory schooling but to group the children in any way that will make instruction more effective.

Sub-grouping within the grade is another way of providing for the less mature children. The wider the age range and the fewer the children the more individual the work that must be done.

In some schools the teacher continues with the children for as long as three years to insure that they experience continuous progress instead of being "left back" and having to repeat a year or more.

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In congested areas with lower income groups the school system is virtually bound to set up special classes or groups for mentally retarded children, even from the first grade.

One advantage of kindergarten experience for all the children of the community is that each child attending will become known as an individual to the school. Frequent contacts with the parents will assure them of good results to be expected in the first grade. The knowledge the kindergarten teacher gains about the child and his home will be invaluable to first grade teachers in planning for each child's activities during the first regular school year. The first grade teacher can begin where the kindergarten left off instead of having to start from "scratch" and more or less "in the dark" with each child.

Needless to say, the parents of five- and six-year-old children need to be informed about the entrance age stand-

ards and the reasons for adopting them, as well as the nature of the first year program and the achievement standards to be expected of the children. Most parents are willing to accept the school's policies if they can be assured that the children will succeed during the first grade.

Needed Research

Here is a problem justifying extensive research. Surveys should be made of practices in representative communities regarding minimum age for compulsory school entrance, methods of grouping the children, nomenclature for entering groups, relation of the problem to presence or absence of kindergartens. There should be follow-up studies of achievement compared with entrance age, a poll of opinions of experts, and the parents' point of view, as well as a study of the relation of this problem to the activity program and unified teaching in the first grade.

PRIMARILY, WHAT IS AT ISSUE is the creation of human relationships that honor individuals because they are human beings. Such relationships will reveal a deep-lying respect for individuality, and a lively concern for ideas, whatever their source or implication. They will reveal, further, a steady patience as some struggle to comprehend or as some are at first dogmatic; a readiness to search for further knowledge and to change attitudes and actions as this knowledge makes this demand; and a willingness to accept responsibility in situations of shared interests; together with a further willingness to accept the restrictions upon individual desires which are needed to make sharing successful. These are the qualities of associated life our young people are entitled to experience under educative conditions, in the first grade and at college, in the schoolroom and on the playgrounds. A democratic education will meet its basic obligation when the development of these qualities is made its first order of business.—H. GORDON HULLFISH in *Intercultural Education News*, April 1946.

Nursery School Readiness

The factors determining readiness of children for nursery school, some techniques for aiding their adjustment, and reasons why some children do not like nursery school are discussed by Mrs. Peller, instructor in child development at City College, New York.

BEFORE A CHILD COMES TO NURSERY SCHOOL his readiness for joining a group should be determined. Nothing is gained by hurrying him toward an experience for which he is not sufficiently mature. In this respect, readiness for joining a group is not different from other developmental stages in the young child's life.

Today an increasing number of psychologists and pediatricians tell parents not to rush the infant's weaning, his toilet training or his learning of table manners. Wise educators tell them that the child should not be made to read and write until he is thoroughly ready to do so. Nursery school entrance is an important milestone in the child's life and he should be permitted to approach it at his own pace.

Factors Determining Readiness

There are three main factors which should be considered in determining a child's readiness for group experiences: his age and general maturity, his ability to form attachments to others, and his opportunities for developing a desire to go to nursery school.

The child's age and general maturity. Some authorities say that most children are ready for group experiences about the second birthday. Harriet Johnson expressed this opinion. More recently Arnold Gesell has mentioned the third year which is also the

author's opinion. However, there are children ready to participate successfully in group life at two years of age or even younger.

The child's ability to give and take, to form attachments to other adults besides his mother, and to exchange affection and interests with his peers. The very young child is able to make successful adjustments to one adult only and not to other children. If he is separated from that adult he passes temporarily through a barren no-man's land as far as affection is concerned, even though he is surrounded by other adults eager to give him love. He suffers want in the midst of plenty. Under favorable conditions, a new tie of affection will be formed fairly soon.

His adjustment to other children is a different matter. Infants and near infants can be kept in groups if an adult watches them and prevents them from doing harm to one another. It can be done and is done, but is it a desirable experience? At rare moments they will exchange a smile or other friendly gesture quite spontaneously. Most toddlers will also learn to defend themselves in crude but effective ways. In terms of physical survival this ability to defend themselves or their toys is a positive adjustment. In terms of social survival, too early and too fierce self-defense may stand in the way of later genuinely social adjustment to a group.

The child's opportunities to build up a desire to come to nursery school. These opportunities may be provided in a number of ways:

... The parents can mention the nursery school at home and on walks past the school.

... The child can be invited to visit the nursery school when there are few or no children present and the teacher has time to become acquainted with him. She may show him some features of the school which have a strong appeal for children—a swing, a see-saw or a merry-go-round which she quietly demonstrates; the low faucets in the bathroom or the low light switches which the child may turn on and off. Underprivileged children with few toys at home may be more intrigued by the dolls and doll furniture. An observant teacher will soon know which are the surest hits.

During this first visit the teacher lets the child have a taste of the interesting things in store for him. Then she reminds him that his mother is waiting and that he may come back another day.¹

... An older sister or brother who goes to school usually stirs the younger one's interest. In the writer's experience this is a strong motivation. Thus a child with an older sibling may adjust well to a nursery group at the age of two and below.

... The nursery school teacher can visit the child in his home. Such a visit provides an excellent link. Unfortunately, it is impractical for many schools with limited staff.

Techniques for Aiding Adjustment

While the above factors play their part before the child comes to nursery

school, there are a number of techniques which help him to adjust after he has entered:

... The child stays for a half day only in the first week or two, or an hour or so if he is below three. A mother who carries a heavy load of work may consider this intermediate step unnecessary. If the child is under five years of age, has never been to nursery school, and has no sibling in school, this half-day attendance is particularly necessary.

... The mother stays with the child during the first few days. Her function is to be present in body only and she should bring her mending or her reading with her. The child should not feel that her eyes follow him all the time. When he comes to her she should be friendly yet casual and turn her interest to her mending. She sits in the room to forestall the child's fear of being left alone among strangers, but he should be free to look for new interests and new friends. The mother's prolonged visiting in the first days has the additional advantage in acquainting her with the nursery school and the teacher as well. Mutual trust is fostered. This procedure is not always necessary.

... A child should not be urged to

¹ In the Clinic of Child Development at Yale University, the children whose mothers come for consultation join the nursery school for one or several mornings. The initial adjustment of a child is a far more frequent event there than in a regular nursery school. First, the arrival of a new child was timed so that he could join the group during outdoor play. This was based on the observation that in outdoor play a child finds it easier to enter a group of unknown children. Nevertheless this plan did not work too well and the child's arrival was accordingly planned at a time when there would be no other children and the teacher could devote her time to the newcomer. This arrangement turned out to be more satisfactory.

nap even if he stays the whole day right from the beginning. Lying down to sleep may be a crucial point in the day of a youngster who otherwise has felt happy from his first minute in school. He may not actually be tired after lunch and thus dislikes lying down. Or, more likely, this situation makes him aware that he is among strangers.

... In some nursery schools a new child is not asked to lie down but is expected to sit quietly in the same room where the other children are sleeping. In the writer's opinion, to sit still for so long a time is quite hard for most children and is likely to undermine their desire to return to nursery school.

... Not all new children enter nursery school on the same day but a small group is added every second or third day. This practice enables the teacher to give more personal attention to each child and is particularly helpful with young children. With older children the adjustment is easier if the members of the group start out together.

... Young children will be better off when their school year starts on Wednesday and not on Monday. A weekend interrupts attendance before the excitement and the inevitable fatigue of the first days become cumulative.

... If a baby is expected in the family, then the older child's attendance in nursery school should start well in advance of the new baby's arrival, at least three to four months. Otherwise the older child may feel he is relegated to nursery school because his parents now have another child. His worries about his place at home will interfere with his adjustment.²

When the child comes home from nursery school the mother should have

time for him and be able to listen to what he has to tell. If he is reluctant to talk much about the nursery school she should not bombard him with questions. Some children want to keep nursery school as their own world. Sometimes a youngster who is monosyllabic at first may chatter freely later. The mother who wants to keep in close touch with her child might tell him what went on at home while he was away. In the long run this is a more effective way of getting him to talk about his adventures than pumping him with questions.

... A child who is very attached to his mother and finds it hard to part from her at the nursery school door may be taken to school by another member of the household. The gradient from one human environment to the other is then less steep. This simple device works surprisingly well and sometimes saves hours of tears. In reality it may be the mother who finds it hard to part with her child. Her farewell to him may be clouded with emotion and the child becomes apprehensive and reluctant to leave her.

... When leaving the nursery school the child may be given a toy to "bring back to school tomorrow." This procedure will of course not overcome major resistance, nor will it work with an older child. It exploits the young child's propensity to become baffled by topographical arrangements. The toy is given less for its play value than as a kind of entrusted errand.

² Mrs. Brown was usually nursing the baby when her older daughter, Jeannie, rushed in from kindergarten. Noticing the child's shocked facial expression, Mrs. Brown placed a photograph of Jeannie in front of her whenever she nursed the baby. Now when Jeannie returns home she finds that she has been, even in her absence, a member of the happy trio.

... After a mother says goodbye to her child she should not linger or return to peep secretly into the room or playground. Whenever the writer saw this done it interfered with the child's adjustment, not infrequently making it impossible. A mother may argue, "But he could not have seen me. I was hidden behind the shrubbery. How could my standing there do anything to him?"

All we know is that it does stand in his way. It may not be her lingering which interferes but her hesitancy in trusting her child to the care of others.³

... When two children from one family—twins or children of different ages—enter nursery school at the same time, should they be placed in the same or different groups? When making this decision, two things should be considered: by entering one group, the transition from home to school will be easier; the eventual goal is to have them join different groups, provided different groups exist. When they are together, the younger or the less aggressive child will trail the older or more aggressive child even though at home the domination may hardly be noticeable. Usually neither one of the two children makes many friends.

One observation disclosed that an older child who at home took little notice of his younger brother assumed responsibility for him and possessiveness of him when they were together in a group. He explained the needs of the younger child to the teacher, not just once, but repeatedly. Sometimes he watched and worried over the younger brother in a way which seemed above his age. The immersion into a larger group of children knitted the fraternal relationship tighter. Actual observations are

needed to increase our understanding of the sibling relationship.

When siblings enter school simultaneously the final adjustment can be accomplished in one or in two smaller steps. The choice will depend upon how big the involved change seems to be for the two children. The two-step arrangement has the drawback of a second uprooting.

Walter (5.4) and Ruth (5), two cousins who had been living in one apartment, entered kindergarten together. The first adjustment was perfectly easy as is usual at this age, yet in the third week Walter appeared irritable and unhappy. When he started vomiting his breakfast his mother asked for advice. Ruth, though younger, had fitted into the new situation with greater facility. The teacher, who wanted her work to run smoothly, had given ample recognition to Ruth who was quick in routines and the first one to learn new songs. As Ruth's self-confidence grew, Walter refrained more and more from group activities and became defensive and obstinate. The children's personalities and the increasing differences in their social responses were explained to the teacher and the mothers, and Ruth was placed in another group. Walter's trouble cleared up promptly and the children played happily together after school. Walter is not a shy child and can stand well the competition of children less close to him than his agile semi-sister.

In contrast to the illustrations above, two children who are playmates are, as a rule, mutually helpful in their adaptation to nursery school.

³ The mother's observation behind a one-way vision screen is legitimate.

... It has been taken for granted that a child goes to nursery school every day, just like older pupils. Recently, Gesell has advised spaced attendance for children from the age of eighteen months to four and a half years.⁴ The child comes to the nursery school twice and later three and four times a week. The hours of attendance are lengthened, too. According to Gesell's observations children profit more by this arrangement than by a daily session. They are not overpowered with new impressions, and, among other things, have fewer colds because they are not overfatigued. Of course this plan is feasible only if the child's mother does not work daily. With spaced attendance nursery school can enroll more children yet keep the groups small. Children are enrolled for definite days. Thus they will always meet the same companions at school and not find themselves in one group on Monday and in another group on Wednesday. Nursery schools which accommodate only about two to four per cent of all preschool children could serve more.

... A mother should give the child at least two weeks to get settled in nursery school before taking on a new job. This should be observed even where the mother is under financial pressure. If the child's absence from home gives a chance to catch up on housework and even to have a semi-vacation, she will be better prepared for the additional strain of her new responsibilities. But not all is won if the child's initial adjustment is easy. A child who takes to nursery school like a duck to water may go through a crisis in his third or fourth week. During the short waking hours at home and on week ends he may depend on his mother more than before.

There Is Always A Reason

Teacher and parent must be convinced that the average child will like nursery school. Whenever a child cries and dislikes it, there is always a reason. His behavior cannot be dismissed as childish or as an attention-getting device. Resistance to nursery school may be due to one or several of the following reasons:

... The child is not mature enough to join a group.

... He has had the previous experience of his mother leaving him "for a few minutes" and not returning for hours or days. This had made him distrustful of new surroundings.

... The child has been shifted around a great deal and has had to adjust to new people too often.

... There is discord and dissension between his parents grave enough to threaten the existence of his home. This does not mean that the parents reject him. In such a case the child will feel insecure even if both parents are devoted to him.

... The family circle has been very recently increased by a baby.

... The parents may be overprotective toward a child either because he is adopted or because the family has lost a child.

... The child has had an unhappy nursery school experience earlier. The nursery school may have been a very poor one or inadequate for him.

None of the above reasons is frequent. They are enumerated here for one main purpose—to enable us to state with conviction that the average

⁴ It may be found that Gesell has drawn the age level too high. Children under three or three and a half years of age may adjust far easier to group living when they have quiet days at home in between.

child will be eager to join nursery school and will adjust within a few days unless one of these factors interferes with his strong desire for new experience and new friends. The opinion that every new step in the child's life is by necessity painful, taken reluctantly and under pressure, is basically wrong. This world is not a vale of tears which we enter with a cry of protest, wailing at every new step, at every change.

On the contrary, when new goals are offered and the child is developmentally ready for them, he will be the one who pushes forward. There will be no need for an adult to force him or to take away the old satisfactions.

There will always be children who must because of family necessity join a group suddenly. Should all the above considerations stop us from admitting them? Certainly not. Under present-day conditions, this would be utterly unrealistic. Where so much uncertainty and insecurity are experienced by adults children, too, will experience early insecurities. The important thing is that the teacher give such children especial attention and understanding to meet their peculiarities with patience.

A child who dislikes nursery school will often refuse to take off his coat and cap. This clinging to clothing as a protest against a disliked or distrusted environment is not unique with the preschool child. The writer remembers a twelve-year-old who on his first two days in camp kept his southwester and rain helmet on in spite of sunshine and summer heat.

It is better to open a window than to strip the child forcibly of his clothing. Clinging to his outdoor garments

is only a symptom of uneasiness. The latter, not the former, should tax the teacher's ingenuity. Similarly, a child may cling to a toy or to his mother's scarf and his preoccupation with it interferes with his entering wholeheartedly into play activities. The book and film, *Journey for Margaret*, have emphasized what emotional value a ragged old toy or even a bomb-shell can have for a child. For him it is the tangible tie with his home and should be respected as such. In the course of the morning the child usually will agree to seat the doll on the piano where he can see it yet has his hands free for play.

The child's refusal to eat or to go to the toilet belongs here, too. The teacher may have to explain to the parents that all this is not naughtiness.

No sooner have we become sensitized to certain needs of children than we have to face situations where we cannot meet these needs. While bent on protecting the child we must be careful not to increase the parents' feelings of guilt for bringing a child to the nursery school before he is ready for it. When explaining to a parent where the dividing line between essentials and desirables runs, we may use the child's nutritional needs as a simile. No parent would deliberately withhold a basic food from his child, yet when circumstances beyond the parents' control deprive the child of that food for a month, no lifelong harm will ensue.

Practically every child will face at one time a sudden adjustment for which he is not prepared and developmentally not ready. Our problem is to make such situations infrequent and never to claim that they have an educational value per se.

**We Welcome
New Board Members**

the members of the Editorial Board. We hope our readers look often at this list and let the members representing their region know their opinions of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION and their needs for material that would be helpful.

Another service our readers can give is to let these board members know about interesting activities in their own schools and communities that would be of value to others. Cooperative sharing of opinions and ideas is the best way to improve the content of the magazine.

Each year it is our privilege to welcome five new contributing members to the Board of Editors and, in rotation, new review editors. Contributing and review editors serve for a period of two years, a policy established by the Executive Board in 1945 which means that members of the Board of Editors serve the same length of time as do members of all A.C.E. committees.

The new contributing editors for 1946-48 are: Mabel Altstetter, Miami University, Ohio; L. Thomas Hopkins, Teachers College, Columbia University; Eugenia Hunter, Woman's College of the University of North Carolina; Alta Miller, Midvale Utah, and Elizabeth Neterer, Seattle, Washington. Dorothy Cadwallader, Trenton, New Jersey, is the editor of books for children, succeeding LuVerne Crabtree Walker. Hannah Lindahl continues for another year as editor of bulletins and pamphlets as do the members of her committee, Katherine Koch and Ethel Kawin. John Hockett, Nancy Bayley and Arthur Jersild continue as the committee to prepare research abstracts, and Clara Belle Baker as editor of books for teachers. We are glad to welcome these new members of the Editorial Board and we hope that they will enjoy their two years of service to the readers of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION.

The contributing members who leave the Board this year are Ruby Adams, Thomas Benner, Stephen Corey, Neva Hollister, and Ruth Updegraff. We are grateful to these members who have given us excellent help and advice and hope that we may call upon them again for another term of service.

Winifred Bain continues to serve as chairman of the Board of Editors and as the unfailing source of advice and counsel to the editor.

On the inside front cover of every issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION are listed the names of

Across the

Exploring a New Environment

A change of environment is always stimulating and challenging.

The editor has made three visits in New York City recently which merit sharing with you.

Industrial Arts Cooperative Service. Years ago as a student at Teachers College the "Co-op" was visited frequently with much satisfaction and help. Today, the I.A.C.S. has greatly expanded its services and looks to greater expansion in the immediate future. I.A.C.S. is a cooperative organization of teachers, parents, camp and recreation leaders, occupational therapists and others interested in an active type of education. It publishes studies which give directions regarding specific techniques; furnish background information, and offer suggestions for activities in classrooms, camps and homes. It supplies materials for carrying through these activities and serves both members and non-members. The editor was particularly interested in finding out what materials were available for handcrafts and art work now that the war is over and in obtaining copies of new publications. *The Young Child Uses Clay and Materials for Children 2 to 7*, are the most recent bulletins. A 1946 *Handbook Catalogue for Parents and Teachers of Young Children* is also available. The two publications mentioned above have been sent to Hannah Lindahl and her committee for consideration for review in a later issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION.

The Downtown Community School. Some time ago in conversation with Margaret Mead she mentioned this school and her interest in it. Her young daughter is a pupil there, and Miss Mead has helped to organize the school. It is located in the former St. Mark's Hospital which has been adapted to school use with amazing success. It was obvious that the huge faucets over wash basins—the kind with the long handles which doctors can turn on and off without touching—presented no hazards to the small fry now using them. Other facilities were used with equal adeptness by the children and teachers. Can you imagine a better playroom than a former solarium?

the Editor's Desk

In this school are children of several nationalities and races. Negro teachers teach white children and vice versa. One six-year-old Filipino guerilla was making life interesting for his teachers and classmates but he is rapidly becoming "oriented" to school living after some months of unrestricted life in the jungles and mountains of his native land. The curriculum as Mrs. Reece, the director, explained it seeks to broaden gradually the child's interest in his world—from his immediate surroundings to a study of home life, community life and finally to international life.

One visit is not enough to get the full flavor of such a school and the editor hopes to go again soon.

Exhibit of Teacher-made Equipment. In the Board of Education building on Livingston Street, Brooklyn, the editor had the privilege of seeing and examining play and library equipment made by New York City teachers from odds and ends of furniture and materials picked up wherever they could find them, and from supplies available to them through the Board of Education. A bookcase turned on its side with one shelf removed made an excellent closet for doll clothes. Cheese boxes arranged in tiers made functional magazine and book racks and cupboards for holding doll dishes. Orange crates attractively upholstered and slip-covered made inviting chairs. Banana crates provided the engine compartments for airplanes, while grape boxes made realistic gas stoves. From strip lumber and ply wood supplied by the Board of Education a number of cradles, beds, tables, ironing boards, a twine holder and laundry tubs invited small people to "housekeep." An attractive end-table had been made from a large telephone wire spool. Blocks had been painted a bright red and with hooks inserted and smoke stack added made an excellent pull train. Chalk boxes had become carts and discarded furniture had been repainted and arranged into reading corners.

The exhibit was small enough so that one child could see everything and in an hour or so discover the secrets of structure and composition. The father of a child still too young to go to school—eight months—is making sketches of some of the equipment for his own future use with young daughter and for the

benefit of readers of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION*.

The New York City Board of Education maintains a laboratory in which every piece of equipment and material used in the schools is tested for safety, durability and use. This laboratory is on the editor's "must" list of places to be visited in the near future.

From the Editor's Correspondence When Helen Trager's article, "International Books for Children,"

was published in the November 1945 issue of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* we received expressions of both approval and disapproval. The case for disapproval was presented by Alice Dalglish in the article "Intercultural Books for Children—Another Point of View," published in the April 1946 issue. Recent correspondence contains some approvals. Here are quotations from three letters:

From L. D. Reddick, curator of The New York Public Library. "Please accept my compliments (on the publication of Mrs. Trager's article). I think it is a good thing that at long last some of our magazines and publishers are waking up to the vast possibilities for good or ill which exist in publications for children and older boys and girls.

"To be frank about it, this was a mild article—just a beginning. I trust that sometime soon you will publish something which exposes a little more concretely the poison which some children's books contain . . . Keep up the good work."

From Edward S. Lewis, executive director, Urban League of Greater New York. "May I take this occasion to commend you for the progressive step the A.C.E. is taking in fostering better racial relations and intercultural understanding among young people. We, in New York, have had occasion, time and time again, to draw attention of the school board to the use of books which give stereotype portrayals and biased interpretations of the Negro in American life. Only a few weeks ago the papers reported the humiliation of a little Negro boy forced to read the story of Little Black Sambo before a mixed class. This story for too many years has helped build up in the minds of the very young a stereotype of the Negro as a humorous half-savage, addicted to gaudy clothes.

"As the father of two children, I have many times found it necessary to counteract the false impressions of other minority groups given to them by literature they have been forced to read in school. The roots of inter-racial and intercultural understanding must be implanted in the minds of the children of our country, if the democracy of which we boast is to be a living reality.

"May I again thank you for your contribution to the cause of true brotherhood and through you congratulate Mrs. Trager for the excellent job she has done."

From A. A. Liveright, executive director, American Council on Race Relations. "Some time ago I had the opportunity to read Helen Trager's article in CHILDHOOD EDUCATION entitled, 'Intercultural Books for Children.' I am in complete accord with Mrs. Trager on all of the general points she stresses in this article. Although I may not agree with her entirely on all of her examples, I nevertheless want to congratulate you for publishing this stimulating and important material.

"It has come to my attention that a number of publishers and several writers have raised questions about Mrs. Trager's article. I certainly hope that these will not discourage you. I want you to know that a number of us who are confronted daily with race relations and minorities' problems feel that this article is an important step toward the development of intelligent and understanding attitudes on the part of tomorrow's citizens . . . in the long run the majority of them (publishers and writers) will see the wisdom of the points

which Mrs. Trager stresses and will assume, more intelligently, their responsibility in regard to the publishing of children's books."

Several issues of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION have given special emphasis to the common values in races and religions and many articles have pointed out the religious values inherent in children's school experiences. It is pleasant to have this note of commendation from one who works in the field of religious education.

From Ruth Shriner, children's director and associate leadership education director, Board of Christian Education. "Recent issues of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION prompt me to write you in appreciation for the occasional articles that lift up religious values inherent in the public schools.

"I believe you are rendering a real service at this point, both to the schools and the churches. All of the current enthusiasm for weekday religious education will probably slowly be tempered into new forms and channels and to some of us there is nothing more important for the church to see than that the public school is already inherently religious in the best meaning of the word.

"During recent months I have checked current issues of your periodical for such articles and references and have circulated them among our editors and field staff people, feeling that if we can be growing a common mind in our church headquarters at this point it will help to leaven our total fellowship eventually."

I'd Rather

By AILEEN FISHER

The mirror on the mantel
The mirror on the wall
Doesn't have a bad life
Looking on at all.

But I'd rather be a window
Facing in and out
Keeping track on both sides
What goes on about.

—From *That's Why* (Nelson, 1946)

Books FOR TEACHERS . . .

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND THE SCHOOL. By William C. Kvaraceus. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Company. Pp. 337.

Juvenile Delinquency and the School deals largely with the history and work of the Children's Bureau of Passaic, New Jersey, of which Mr. Kvaraceus was formerly director. Not every community in America can follow the Passaic Plan, but the teachers in every community who are interested in the growth and development of human beings should read this book.

Passaic is not necessarily typical of American communities. For instance, it is among the most densely populated of American cities, it is largely an industrial community and, although heterogeneous, its population contains a high percentage of families with at least one foreign-born parent. The community—a city of some 60,000 people—is predominantly Roman Catholic in religion and has half as many parochial schools as public. For these and other reasons the chief interest of the book is not in its carefully compiled and somewhat exhaustive statistical information. Although the book's facts and figures are compelling in their local implications, its most striking themes condemn the school as a factor contributing to delinquency and are enriched with applied and tested remedial measures.

A certain portion of the statistics cannot be ignored. The Bureau found that 75 per cent of the acts of delinquency reported to the Bureau were committed by groups of two or more. It also found that less than 7 per cent of its cases dealt with children who were members of the various youth service groups. Its discovery that 75 per cent of its delinquents attended church is startling and cannot be accepted as typical of the American community.

Most of its cases were children with I.Q.'s slightly lower than average and 98 per cent of them fell into the two lowest scholastic levels. More than half had below passing grades in one or more subjects. Two-thirds of them expressed a dislike for school or for some person connected with it. Strangely, only 14 per

cent of the referrals of cases came from the schools. A significant observation is that the rate of delinquency dropped appreciably when school was not in session.

It is important that the Bureau was organized and put into operation without the employment of additional personnel either by the city or by the schools. It might be observed, however, that not every school system has non-teaching members of its staff who could be shifted to this work.

The Children's Bureau of Passaic is composed of a director; the assistant superintendent of schools who is in charge of guidance, research, and the curriculum; a psychologist; a psychiatric social worker; two attendance officers; four police officers and a number of clerks. Some now occupying these positions were given additional training and shifted to their present positions. Others have been employed since the beginning of the program and are highly trained specialists.

Most of the cases reported to the Bureau are reported by individuals. Once reported they are turned over to a police officer for investigation and the making of a case history. These reports reach the Bureau where additional records are checked for information about the delinquent's physical condition, psychological test records, and previous records. The studies are followed by a conference of the Bureau personnel who later confer with the delinquents, their parents and associates. Visiting teachers compile further information and make recommendations.

Sometimes children are transferred to special classes or schools. On occasion even new classes are formed for them. The fact that parents and children have a part in these deliberations has contributed much to the improvement of the environment and thus many factors contributing to delinquency have been removed.

One is impressed by the fact that repeaters are fairly rare. Passaic has done a good job. Every American community does not have the same problems and every American municipality or school district cannot boast of parks, playgrounds, free libraries, trained psychologists and social workers. But every commun-

ity does have people who see or can be shown local problems and be trained to help solve them. Mr. Kvaraceus definitely points out that delinquency is the problem of the whole community. He mentions many things that may be done in meeting the problems offered by delinquency in any community. Those of special interest to the school are:

Formulation of an adequate testing program to aid observation of personality development.

Maintenance of cumulative individual records.

Curriculum organization and revision providing materials to help each child to: (1) prepare to earn a living, (2) live a healthful life, (3) use leisure time beneficially and enjoyably, (4) love his country, (5) live the democratic way of life, and (6) formulate a philosophy of life founded on spiritual values.

Provide wise vocational guidance and opportunities for training.

Prepare each teacher to recognize children in situations contributory to delinquency.

Juvenile Delinquency and the School does not recognize delinquency as the only problem of the school. Neither does it consider it the problem of only the school. Delinquency is only one of the problems of the school and like all others it involves working in close harmony with other agencies. Mr. Kvaraceus has not only given us an interesting and worth-while treatise on how Passaic is solving one of its most pressing problems, but he has also challenged every American community.—R. B. Chitwood, *Supervisor, Yell County, Arkansas*.

SPEECH AND THE TEACHER. By Seth A. Fessenden, New York: Longmans, Green and Company. Pp. 294. \$2.50.

One of the outstanding aims in teacher education today is "to train all teachers to use speech more effectively." *Speech and the Teacher* is one of an increasing number of books which presents both a plan and many additional suggestions for accomplishing this aim. It relates teaching principles and speech principles.

The author concentrates on principles in the education-speech areas rather than on mere

devices or methods. His presentation is clear, orderly, direct and concise. It deals with assurance on phases of speech knowledge that every teacher should possess. Both the references to other sources and the psychological approach in the discussions are up to date. Procedures referring to group reading and dealing with competitive practices might be questioned. The omission or brief handling of differing types of physical support demanded by different speech activities might be noted.

The units on listening with understanding and discrimination, radio uses in the classroom, conversation skills, and problems of discussion present valuable basic materials with impressive compactness, soundness, accuracy and clarity. The section devoted to advising inexperienced students on how to detect and refer the cases of children's speech deficiencies is brief and elementary in content but generally sound. The sections on voice, articulation and principles of public speaking seem least challenging.

The proportion of illustrative material is adequate for making clear the author's ideas. It seems chosen to interest prospective teachers of widely varying social backgrounds and classroom responsibilities. It is stimulating rather than limiting by too detailed specifics. Whenever possible, it is of the problem-solving, thought-provoking type rather than mere repetitious drill toward the development of an hypothetically needed skill.

This is a book experienced non-speech-trained teachers will keep on their desks for use in individual guidance and in practice teacher conferences. It will be valuable to most prospective teachers. It seems best for teachers in service who have not had recent courses in speech. It may be less effective for class use in teachers' colleges where several speech courses are required; least effective, as the author himself recognizes, for speech minors and majors within whose experience the material would have been covered more completely. Finally, it would serve effectively in a basic speech course for teachers which from the freshman year on is professionalized. — Mary Virginia Rodigan, director, Department of Speech, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Books FOR CHILDREN . . .

Newbery and Caldecott Awards

The American Library Association has awarded the Newbery Medal to Lois Lenski for *Strawberry Girl*, judged the best children's book written in 1945; and the Caldecott Medal to Maud and Miska Petersham for *The Rooster Crows*, the most distinguished picture book.

A review of *Strawberry Girl* appears below.

STRAWBERRY GIRL. By Lois Lenski, Illustrated by the author. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1945. Pp. 194. \$2.50.

Here is another regional story of distinction by Lois Lenski. (Remember *Bayou Suzette*!) Birdie Boyer who is "Strawberry Girl" is a Florida "cracker" whose family earns a meager existence by raising strawberries in the flat woods farm section of the state. This is a real story whose setting is a flavorful region of America at a time when old Florida life was changing to new. The Lenski sketches are perfectly attuned to the text.

A little girl of nine who received the book as a gift writes in her thank-you note: "I am reading *Strawberry Girl* now and I like it very much. But the funniest thing is that I started from the middle of the book and then read the front. It's better that way."

We present this interesting piece of evidence since it comes from one of the audience for whom the book was written.—Reviewed by Lu Verne Crabtree Walker.

BIG MUSIC OR TWENTY MERRY TALES TO TELL. Chosen by Mary Noel Bleecker. Illustrated by Louis S. Glanzman. New York: The Viking Press, 1946. \$2.50.

To find so many of one's favorite stories in one volume is a pleasure. The significance of the following quotation from Mary Noel Bleecker's Foreword makes this a "must" book for those who tell stories to children: "The children have always known what too many of us have forgotten, that wherever and whenever people laugh together—without bitterness and without malice—enmity, suspicion, and greed vanish as if by magic."

Some of the stories included in this delightful collection are "Hudden and Dudden and Donald O'Neary," "The Baker's Daughter," "Cat and Mouse Keep House," "Clever Gretel" and sixteen others equally good. It will be fun for children to guess the names of the twenty characters from the stories portrayed in Louis Glanzman's clever end-sheets.

WHERE THE REDBIRD FLIES. Compiled by Wilhelmina Harper. Illustrated by George Avison. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1946. \$2.75.

It is always a gala day when Wilhelmina Harper compiles another book. This is the second of her *Our States in Story* series. The first, *Yankee Yarns*, was a spirited collection from the Northeastern States. This volume introduces young readers to the Southeastern section of the country. Such familiar authors as Marguerite De Angeli, Elsie Singmaster, Elizabeth Janet Gray, Laura Benet, Rose B. Knox make this book a real contribution to historic and modern understanding of American life despite the fact that the make-up of the book might be more attractive. Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Florida are the states included. In addition to the charming stories, a few facts of interest are given about each state.

A PICTURE HISTORY OF BRITAIN. By Clarke Hutton. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. \$2.50.

A contribution to a better understanding of our English neighbors told with colorful pictures and in simple language. Early Britain, Anglo-Saxon Britain, Norman England, the Middle Ages, Tudor England, the Stuart Period, Hanoverian England, Victorian England and Twentieth Century England, each illustrated with bright pictures that show the trend of the times for that particular period, portray the significant changes in the lives of the people. This is a fascinating "read together" book for a teacher and class, as well as a parent and child.

HARRIET. By Charles McKinley, Jr. Pictures by William Pene du Bois. New York: Viking Press, 1946. \$2.00.

This book is beautifully and wonderfully made and makes one feel like turning the pages carefully to absorb every bit of the story and pictures about Harriet, the horse. Harriet drew a lovely little cart through London streets until she retired and had a midsummer night birthday with Mr. Edward Esquire, her owner.

William Pene du Bois has done an exquisite job with the pictures. It is hoped that adults using this book with children will take time to turn each page and help children to appreciate the subtle beauty of the pictures. They reveal the innermost feelings of an artist who appreciates a story so well that one becomes the complement of the other. An honor book for children under 12 on the *New York Herald Spring Book Festival List*.

THE THREE FAMOUS UGLY SISTERS. By Caroline Dyer. Illustrated by Donald McKay. New York: Whittlesey House, 1946. \$1.75.

One of those rollicking stories so dear to the heart of our comics-loving children. These three famous ugly sisters scare away a ferret after the Hogan's chickens, a hawk after the Marlow's ducks, crows in Farmer Fairweather's corn, and have numerous other exciting adventures.

How Ugly Young Pete went to their castle and what happened makes an hilarious story. One can almost hear the squeals of delight as children listen to the story read or told. The comics-type pictures with the expressive faces of the characters add to the zest and fun.

JUNGLE BOY. By Lys'le Carveth. Illustrated by Anne Vaughn. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1945. Pp. 103. \$2.

There is beauty of design in the charming black and white drawings, and the story itself is artistic and delightful. Angkot is a mountain boy in the Philippines. Folk legends are woven into the pattern of his story, in such episodes as Angkot's encounter with Ogsa the great white deer god.

Ways of living in mountain and lowland are contrasted in Angkot's adventures when he finds himself stranded in a lowland village. Angkot, the different one, becomes a leader when war comes to the lowlands and he leads his lowland friends to safety.

SPRING IS HERE. By Lois Lenski. Calligraphy by Hilda Scott. New York: Oxford University Press, 1945. Seventy-five cents.

Gay, happy verse and pictures welcome Spring. This is a tiny book for tiny people. Children, birds, apple tree, wind, milkman's horse prancing, sister's swing, brother's kite, baby calf, little lambs, Easter bunny, garden, jump rope, hoop, and ball say, "Spring is here. Spring has come to stay!"—for children from two to six.

CHICKEN LITTLE COUNT TO TEN. By Margaret Friskey. Illustrated by Katherine Evans. Chicago, Ill.: Childrens Press, Inc., 1946. \$1.00.

An outstanding book in color and design for those in the one to ten stage of counting.

Chicken Little forgets how to drink so he tries the drinking methods of all the animals he meets, fails, returns home and discovers the simple secret. One of the honor picture books on the *Herald Tribune Spring Book Festival List*.

THE RUNAWAY SHUTTLE TRAIN. By Muriel Fuller. Illustrated by Dorathea Dana. Philadelphia, Pa.: David McKay Co., 1946. \$2.00.

A splendid introduction to the biggest city in the world through gay pictures illustrating the story of the strange disappearance of this busy little underground train. It well deserves its distinction of being one of the honor picture books on the *Herald Tribune Spring Book Festival List*.

ONCE THERE WAS A LITTLE BOY. By Dorothy Kunhardt. Illustrated by Helen Sewell. New York: Viking Press, 1946. \$2.50.

This is the kind of book that makes one long to share the intimate picture of the boy Jesus with a little child in the quiet atmosphere of a lovely home. How He played with His brothers and sisters, how He helped His father and His mother, how He watched the sowers and many other incidents in His childhood make Him a live, much loved little boy.

Helen Sewell's soft colored pictures help to emphasize the loving care bestowed upon the boy Jesus.

Bulletins AND PAMPHLETS . . .

Community Living —National and International

HERE'S HOW IT'S DONE—*A Popular Education Guide*. By Florence B. Widutis assisted by Sally Smith Kahn. New York 7, N. Y.: The Postwar Information Exchange, Inc., assisted by The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 41 Maiden Lane. Pp. 74. \$1.00.

Based upon a survey of the practices of national and local agencies that are working to educate Americans in national and international problems and community planning, this interesting guide points the way to effective community leadership. It answers adequately the familiar question—how can one individual out of one hundred thirty million make himself heard and obtain results? Examples of the way in which groups from coast to coast are using the tools of popular education—radio, films, and publicity—to produce an enlightened citizenry are described under such chapter headings as *Tackle Issues in Groups*, *Exploit the Airways*, *Show a Film*, *Sugar-Coat It, Be Sociable*, and *Take a Tip from Advertising*.—Katherine Koch.

TEACHING ABOUT THE UNITED NATIONS CHARTER. Edited by William G. Carr. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. Pp. 39. Ten cents.

The purpose of this manual is to offer concrete suggestions which will help teachers to guide their pupils in learning about the Charter of the United Nations. Teaching outlines and questions for discussion are suggested for study of the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the Secretariat, and the Significance of the Charter. A list of the most useful official publications and information about securing them are included. All teachers in secondary schools and colleges should own this very valuable guide. Teachers of history and social studies will find it an essential tool.—Katherine Koch.

SCHOOL CENSUS, COMPULSORY EDUCATION, CHILD LABOR — STATE LAWS AND REGULATIONS. By Maris M. Proffitt and David Segel. Bulletin 1945, No. 1, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office. Pp. 200. Thirty cents.

The U. S. Office of Education has prepared this convenient handbook setting forth the practices of each state relative to the school census, compulsory education, and child labor regulations. No detailed composite picture of these laws and practices can be presented for our country as a whole because they are subject to state control and each state enacts its own legislation concerning them. This bulletin will be very helpful to all who are concerned with present laws and their administration, and with new and better legislation for the welfare and protection of children.—Ethel Kawin.

Consumer Education

THE CONSUMER EDUCATION SERIES. No. 1 *The Modern American Consumer*. No. 2 *Learning to Use Advertising*. By Fred T. Wilhelms and others for Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Washington 6, D. C.: N.E.A., 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. No. 1, Pp. 67. No. 2, Pp. 107. Each twenty-five cents. Discounts allowed for quantities.

The purpose of these units is to "help young people to become more intelligent, more effective, and more conscientious consumers in the economy in which they live." Placed in the hands of secondary school pupils as guides to learning, these units should do just that for they are written in chatty, informal style; contain many familiar examples; appeal to the reader's sense of humor, and encourage thoughtful self-appraisal.

Other units now available include: No. 3 *Time on Your Hands*. On the "consuming" of leisure time. No. 4 *Investing in Yourself*. How to use resources in securing an education and starting a career. No. 5 *Economic Choices for*

America. Analysis of policies facing America. No. 6 Using Standards and Labels.—Katherine Koch.

Science and Skills

OVER THE GROUND: Cornell Rural Leaflet, Vol. 38, No. 3. By E. Laurence Palmer, Bristow Adams, and Fatanitza Schmidt. Ithaca: New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University. Pp. 31. Price not given.

This is the third in a series of illustrated pamphlets that deal with ways of getting from place to place—through the air (Leaflet One); through the water (Leaflet Two); over the ground (Leaflet Three). This material would be helpful to teachers of young children or could be used directly by older children.—*Ethel Kawin.*

OUTDOOR LABORATORIES. Prepared by E. L. Palmer and others. Cornell Rural School Leaflet, Vol. 39, No. 1, Fall 1945. Ithaca, New York; New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University. Pp. 63. Price not given.

The experiences of Cornell University in using its natural resources as a laboratory are described in this publication. The report should develop in other communities an awareness of the potentialities of their environments as a laboratory. Teachers will find definite help in the section of the bulletin which gives concrete suggestions for fostering the study of natural history in the schoolrooms through miniature laboratories.—*Hannah M. Lindabl.*

CLASSIFICATION OF READING DISABILITIES. By Emmett A. Betts. Reprint from "The Visual Digest." State College, Pa.: Reading Clinic, Room 8, Burrowes Building. Pp. 9. Fifteen cents.

The need for differentiated instruction in reading in terms of specific reading disabilities is emphasized in this monograph. Limitations of previous methods of classifying reading problems are discussed; steps in classifying reading problems in terms of relationships between analysis findings are described. Teachers who are trying to give corrective and remedial in-

struction in reading will find help and guidance in this publication.—*Hannah M. Lindabl.*

TRAINING SCHOOL BUS DRIVERS. Prepared by the American Automobile Association and the Trade and Industrial Education Service of the Vocational Division of the U. S. Office of Education. Vocational Division Bulletin No. 233 and Trade and Industrial Series No. 61. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. Pp. 162. Thirty cents.

This bulletin is a practical guide for the development of training programs for school bus drivers. The instructional plan presented in the bulletin is organized in parallel columns of content outline and teaching suggestions. Conciseness and clarity characterize the points in the instructional plan.—*Hannah M. Lindabl.*

About Workshops

THE WORKSHOP. By Paul B. Diederich and William Van Til. New York 3, N. Y.: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. Pp. 32. Price not stated.

This is one of the new Service Center Pamphlets of the American Education Fellowship, published jointly by the Fellowship and The Bureau for Intercultural Education. It contains a summary of the principles and practices of the workshop movement—a most timely and helpful clarification of the concept of a real *workshop* in a time when all sorts of projects (sometimes even a series of lectures!) are being labelled "workshops" in some places.—*Ethel Kawin.*

THE MONTCLAIR CONFERENCE ON WORKSHOP PLANNING. Work in Progress Series. By Lester Dix. New York 19, N. Y.: Bureau for Intercultural Education, 1697 Broadway. Pp. 55. Price not stated.

This is the fourth in a series of reports of projects being carried on in intercultural education. It was prepared through a conference of invited participants with the objective of helping persons who want to plan effective and satisfying workshops, especially in the field of intercultural education. It should serve this purpose very well.—*Ethel Kawin.*

News HERE AND THERE . . .

Patty Smith Hill

Patty Smith Hill, Professor Emeritus of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, passed away on May 25 at her home in New York City. She was one of that unusual group of women in American education, all of strong humanitarian purpose and high intellectual calibre, who contributed a unique heritage to early childhood education in the United States.

Miss Hill had the temperament of a pioneer and the advantage of living in the pioneer era in the development of the kindergarten. She was born in 1868 just three decades after the establishment of the first kindergarten in Germany and slightly more than ten years after the appearance of the first of these institutions in the United States. In her girlhood the time was ripe for revaluation of the kindergarten. Miss Hill was inspired to undertake a large share in this task. She translated the thoughts of such educational leaders as G. Stanley Hall, John Dewey, and Edward L. Thorndike into the practice of teaching young children. The time was ripe too for humanitarian service to immigrant groups who, arriving from foreign lands to flood labor markets of America, created slums in our cities. Here her work with early kindergartens flourished.

Miss Hill's work was transferred from Louisville, Kentucky, to Columbia University in 1905. Here she taught large numbers of students and through them influenced the education of children in the United States and abroad. In this her period of maturity she concentrated on the extension of liberal educational theories below and above the kindergarten level to nursery schools and primary grades, the expansion of education in community living, and the strategy of placing and organizing teachers who would carry out the vision of education as she had conceived it.

Among the great number of students whose lives she influenced at Teachers College was a veritable host of enthusiastic followers. Shortly before her retirement this group presented Miss Hill with a sum of money to be used as she saw fit. This fund enabled her to promote certain projects in community education. It helped to finance some of the work at the Hilltop Cooperative Association for Community Education in New York City. Additional amounts in the past three years were administered through the Association for Childhood Education and devoted to scholarships furthering research on the needs of children in different communities and post-war study grants to two teachers from Norway.

Miss Hill was awarded the honorary degree of Doctor of Letters by Columbia University in 1929. She was a past president of the Association for Childhood Education, a member of the Association's Advisory Committee and the Committee of Nineteen.

Miss Hill organized and was chairman of the National Committee on Nursery Education, a committee that later became the National Association for Nursery Education.—Winifred E. Bain.

Changes

Florence Brumbaugh, from Hunter College to Turkey, where she will establish a school for English speaking children in connection with Robert College.

Mildred English, from Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville, to become head of elementary and secondary education, Office of Military Government for Germany (U. S.) with headquarters at Berlin.

Retirements

A. C. E. Headquarters Office has received word of the retirement from active service of the following people: Elizabeth M. Cullen, former supervisor of kindergartens of Detroit, Michigan, retired in 1945; Elisabeth Webster, former supervisor of primary work, Grand Rapids, Michigan, retired in June of this year.

New A. C. E. Branches

Association for Childhood Education of Teachers College, New Britain, Connecticut

East Hillsborough Association for Childhood Education, Florida

New Albany Association for Childhood Education, Indiana

Ottawa Association for Childhood Education, Kansas
Sand Springs Association for Childhood Education, Oklahoma

Reinstated:

Alhambra Association for Childhood Education, California

New A. C. E. Bulletins

The *Bibliography of Books for Children*, revised 1946 edition, is a 100-page bulletin listing some 900 selected and approved books for children ages 2 to 14. The name and address of the publisher, the author, publication date, price, age level and a brief annotation are given. It can be used as a working tool and reference source by educators and students and a guide for parents in the selection of books.

Growing Up Safely has been developed jointly by the National Commission on Safety Education of the National Education Association and the Association for Childhood Education. The joint committee, representing the two organizations, through discussion developed the plan for the bulletin. Members of the committee were Robert W. Eaves, Hazel Gabbard, Doris Erwin, Louise Smith and Frances Mayfarth. Acting as advisers were Frank Hubbard, Director of Research Division, National Education Association, and Rosamond Praeger, a member of the Executive Board of the Association for Child-

hood Education. Material in the bulletin deals with safety problems of children of nursery school, kindergarten and primary age. It is a guide to teachers and parents in planning for children so that they may live joyously and yet without danger.

Both publications are general service bulletins and may be purchased from A. C. E. Headquarters, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. The price of the bibliography is seventy-five cents and that of *Growing Up Safely* is fifty cents.

Norwegian Teachers Visit Headquarters

It was the privilege of the A. C. E. Headquarters to have as guests in Washington on August 5, 6 and 7, Inger Idsoe and Ruth Halvorsen of Oslo, Norway. On August 10 they sailed from New York to again take up their work as teachers in Norway.

These two young women have been studying in this country through funds made available from the Patty Smith Hill Trust Fund and through scholarships from National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois, and Western Washington College of Education, Bellingham.

At Spring and Summer Conferences

The Association for Childhood Education was officially represented by a board or staff member at the following conferences:

American Council on Education, Chicago, Illinois
First National Conference on Citizenship, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
National Parent Education Conference, Atlantic City, New Jersey
President's Highway Safety Conference, Washington, D. C.
National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Denver, Colorado
Kansas A. C. E. Workshop, University of Wichita
Oklahoma A. C. E. Workshop, University of Oklahoma, Norman
Education Press Workshop, Madison, Wisconsin
School for Executives, Chautauqua, New York
National Conference on Teacher Preparation and Supply, Chautauqua, New York
Kindergarten-Primary Department of the National Education Association, Buffalo, New York

Life Members

Those who have become life members of the Association for Childhood Education since January 1946 are:

Lida M. Williams, South Dakota
Minnie Pahatski, Arkansas

Frances A. Hungerford, Michigan
Dora Glines, California
Dorothy K. Cadwallader, New Jersey
Phila G. Humphreys, Ohio
Helen Christianson, California
Elizabeth M. Newton, Minnesota

Kindergarten-Primary Department

This department of the National Education Association met in Buffalo on July 1, 1946, for the 59th annual session.

Following a panel discussion on "Recent Trends and Their Implications for Kindergarten-Primary Education," a brief business session was held. Resolutions were adopted and the following officers elected:

President—Ruth Newby, Pasadena, California
Vice-President—Mildred B. Moss, Metuchen, New Jersey
Executive Committee—Edna Parker, Tallahassee, Florida
Dorothy Jackson, Trenton, N. J.
Dorothy Eich, Oak Park, Illinois

World Conference of Teachers

The National Education Association has announced the following five subjects for discussion by the World Conference of the Teaching Profession at Endicott, New York, August 17-30, 1946:

Cooperation in the teaching of international relations
Development of an effective organization for the teachers of the world
Cooperation with UNESCO
Assistance in the restoration of schools in war-devastated areas
General problems of international cooperation in education

Delegates from thirty-three teachers associations in twenty-eight countries have announced their intention to attend the conference. William G. Carr serves as secretary of the conference.

Leadership in Teacher Education

The Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education comes to the end of 1945-1946 with a gratifying record of accomplishment and enters the 1946-1947 school year with hope for continued usefulness.

Karl W. Bigelow will devote one-half his time to the job of executive director for the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. He will have a part-time assistant and secretarial help. An executive office is being

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Waiting for you is the September Mother Asia Artcrafts, a conducted art tour by Editors Pedro deLemos, Jane Rehnstrand and Esther Morton. October has just what you'll like for Holiday helps—November, Creative Design and Decoration—The first 3 issues are outstanding!

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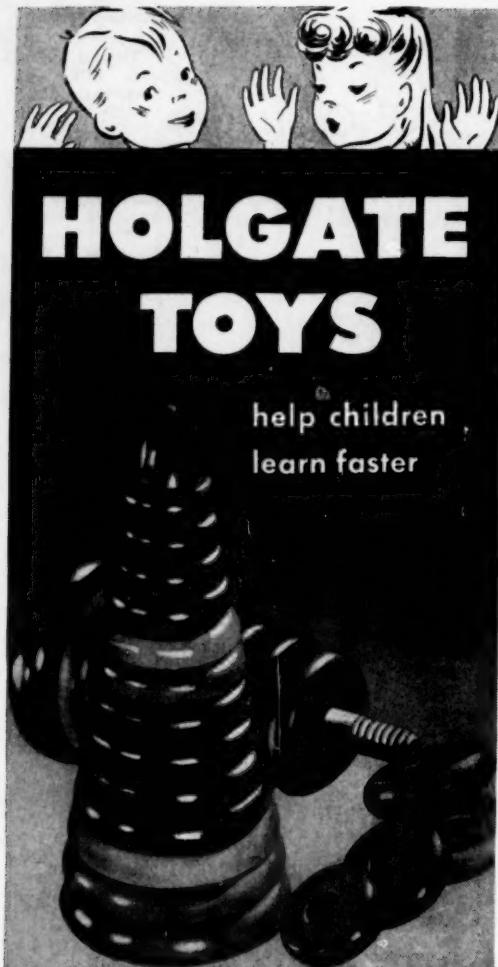
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established at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Seventeen organizations now comprise the CCTE. During the past year the affiliation of the Association of American Colleges and the National Council of Chief State School Officers has strengthened the Council.

Clinic on Teacher Education

The Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education will sponsor a National Clinic on Teacher Education in the State of Georgia, November 3-9, 1946.

This clinic is to be a means for representatives of all the states to combine their efforts in seeking solutions to some of the pressing problems in the improvement of the education of teachers. Each state is being invited to send a delegation of four persons. In addition there will be several consultants and other participants invited by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

Management of the Clinic is in the hands of a National Clinic Committee, appointed by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. The chairman of this committee is Laurence D. Haskew.

Children's Bureau

Under the President's Reorganization Plan No. 2, effective July 15, the Children's Bureau moves to the Federal Security Agency. The Industrial Division of the Bureau remains in the Department of Labor and is being transferred as a unit to the Labor Department's Division of Labor Standards where it will operate as the Child Labor and Youth Employment Branch of the Division.

Katherine Lenroot, chief of the Children's Bureau since November 1934, will continue in that post.

National School Lunch Act

The Federal School Lunch Program, started in 1935, primarily to keep farm surpluses from unduly depressing prices to growers, became, on July 1, 1946, a permanent federal-state program designed primarily to foster higher nutritional standards in feeding children.

"In the long view," said President Truman as he signed the bill establishing the permanent program, "no nation is any healthier than its children or more prosperous than its farmers; and in the National School Lunch Act the Congress has contributed immeasurably both to the welfare of our farmers and the health of our children."